

BIRLA CENTRAL LIBRARY

PILANI (Rajasthan)

Class No:- 942

Book No:- T641H v.2

Accession No:- 6748

A HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

BOOK II

BY
T. F. TOUT, M.A., D.LITT.

This book is a revised edition of the author's Book II,
amended to make it suitable for Indian Schools.

WITH ILLUSTRATIONS, MAPS AND PLANS

Fourth Impression

LONGMANS, GREEN & CO. LTD.
6, OLD COURT HOUSE STREET, CALCUTTA
53, NICOL ROAD, BOMBAY
36A, MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS
LONDON, NEW YORK AND TORONTO

1937

PUBLISHERS' NOTE

TOUT'S ENGLISH HISTORY books are so well known to all students and teachers of History, that they need no special introduction. This edition has been prepared to meet the special requirements of Indian schools and it is expected that it will receive the same encouragement which the author's original edition has had in this country.

NOTE TO THE 1936 IMPRESSION

IN bringing out this new impression opportunity has been taken to include some additional maps and diagrams so as to make the book still more useful. Suggestive questions have been added.

CONTENTS

BOOK I

Britain before the Norman Conquest up to 1066.

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. Britain before the English Conquest up to 449 ...	1
II. How the English came to Britain, and how they became Christians, 449—668 ...	12
III. How the West Saxon Kings became Lords of all England, and how the Danes settled in the land, 626—899 ...	21
IV. How England became one kingdom, and how it was conquered by the Danes, 899—1042 ...	31
V. The Reigns of Edward the Confessor and Harold, 1042—1066 ...	37
VI. English Life and Government before 1066 ...	45

BOOK II

Norman and Angevin Britain, 1066—1216.

VII. The Norman Kings of the English, 1066—1154 ...	50
VIII. Henry II. (of Anjou), 1154—1189 ...	64
IX. Richard I., the Lion Heart, 1189—1199 ...	73
X. John Lackland, 1199—1216 ...	79

BOOK III

The later Plantagenets, 1216—1399.

XI. Henry III. of Winchester, 1216—1272 ...	95
XII. Edward I., 1272—1307 ...	104
XIII. England in the Thirteenth Century ...	116
XIV. Edward II. of Carnarvon, 1307—1327 ...	121
XV. Edward III., 1327—1377 ...	126
XVI. Richard II. of Bordeaux, 1377—1399 ...	138

Contents

BOOK IV

CHAPTER	PAGE
The House of Lancaster and York, 1399—1485.	
XVII. Henry IV., 1399—1413	147
XVIII. Henry V., 1413—1422	151
XIX. Henry VI., 1422—1461	156
XX. The House of York, 1461—1485	165

BOOK V

The House of Tudor, 1485—1603.	
XXI. Henry VII., 1485—1509	178
XXII. Henry VIII., 1509—1547	185
XXIII. Edward VI., 1547—1553	201
XXIV. Mary, 1553—1558	205
XXV. Elizabeth, 1558—1603	210

BOOK VI

The House of Stewart, 1603—1714.	
XXVI. James I., 1603—1625	236
XXVII. Charles I., 1625—1649	247
XXVIII. The Commonwealth and the Protectorate, 1649—1660	264
XXIX. Charles II., 1660—1685	273
XXX. James II., 1685—1688	285
XXXI. William III. and Mary, 1689—1702	290
XXXII. Anne, 1702—1714	299

BOOK VII

The House of Hanover, 1714—1901.	
XXXIII. George I., 1714—1727	311
XXXIV. George II., 1727—1760	316
XXXV. George III., 1760—1820	331
XXXVI. George IV., 1820—1830	360
XXXVII. William IV., 1830—1837	366
XXXVIII. Victoria, 1837—1901	371

BOOK VIII

The House of Windsor, 1901.	
XXXIX. Edward VII., 1901—1910	401
XL. George V., 1910—1936	408
INDEX	433

BOOK I

BRITAIN BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST Up to 1066

CHAPTER I

Britain before the English Conquest up to 449

(Celtic and Roman Britain)

Principal Dates :

- 55-54 B.C. Invasions of Britain by Julius Cæsar.
- 43 A.D. Claudius begins the Roman Conquest of Britain.
- 410 A.D. The Romans withdraw from Britain.
- 410-449 A.D. The Britons independent.

The **chief early races** of Britain were :

- (1) The Cave Men.
- (2) The Iberians.
- (3) The Celts.

1. Many thousand years ago the islands of Britain and Ireland were very different from what they are now. It was hotter in summer and colder in winter. Wild beasts, such as lions and bears, roamed about the desolate hills and swampy valleys, seeking for their prey. Against them fought, as best they could, a few savage men, little better than dwarfs. They were so ignorant that they could not plough the fields. They did not know how to use metals. Their only tools and weapons were made of flint, rudely cut and sharpened. For this reason the time at which they lived is called the *palæolithic* or old stone age. These primitive men sought out dwellings for themselves in caves, where their remains are

Britain before the English Conquest

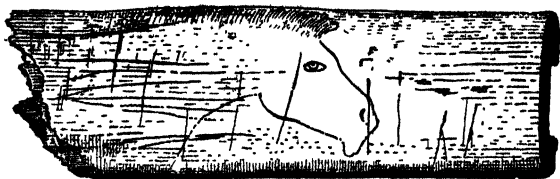
still found. The cleverest things they made were pictures of animals, scratched upon flat pieces of bone. We do not know how these men came to Britain, how



PALAEOLITHIC FLINT SCRAPER FROM
ICKLINGHAM, SUFFOLK (*Evans*)

PALAEOLITHIC FLINT IMPLEMENT
FROM HORNE, SUFFOLK

long they lived there, or what language they spoke. It is very unlikely that any of the present inhabitants of the British islands are descended from them. Yet



ENGRAVED BONE FROM CRESWELL CRAGS, DERRBYSHIRE
(*Now in the British Museum*)

we should remember these *cave men* because they were the first human beings who ever dwelt in the land of Britain.

2. Ages passed away and the cave men disappeared. Their place was taken by another race of men. They are sometimes called *Iberians*, because they are thought to be the same as the old inhabitants of Spain, which was once called Iberia. These were short, dark-skinned, black-haired men. Their skulls were long and narrow.

The
Iberians

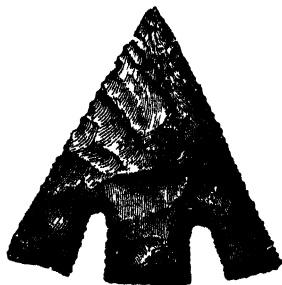
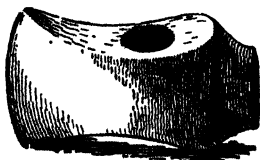


VII W OF STONEHENGE (From a Photograph)

Many of the short, dark men now living in Britain and Ireland are like what these Iberians must have been. Probably Iberian blood still runs in their veins. It is very likely that the great circles of huge stones, like *Stonehenge* in Salisbury Plain, which are found still remaining, are the work of this people. The Iberians were much less savage than the race that had gone before them. Though still ignorant of metals, their stone tools were beautifully neat and useful. The

time when they flourished is called the *neolithic* or the new stone age. They ground corn, wove wool into cloth, and made vessels of coarse pottery.

3. The next people that came to Britain were called the *Celts*. They were a tall, fair-skinned, light-haired race, with round skulls. They spoke languages which are still the mother-tongues of many people in the British Isles today. They overcame the little dark Iberians, and forced them to learn their language and customs. Many of the present inhabitants of Britain are descended from these Celts,



NEOLITHIC AXE FROM WINTERBOURNE
STEEPLETON, DORSET (*Evans*)

NEOLITHIC FLINT ARROW-HEAD
FROM RUDSTONE, YORKS (*Evans*)

or the race formed by the intermarriage of the Celts with the Iberians. The Irish, the Manx, the Scottish Highlanders, and the Welsh are either pure Celts or come from this mixed stock. Most of the Welsh, and some of the Irish and Highland Scots, still speak Celtic languages. Even in the rest of Britain many people are mainly of these races. The Celts were not only stronger but more civilised than the earlier inhabitants of Britain. They brought in the use of metals, and made their tools and arms at first of bronze and afterwards also of iron. They wore clothes, and were fond of gold and silver bracelets and ornaments. The use of pottery was

**Celtic
Civilization**

well understood by them. Their wealth was chiefly in great flocks of sheep and herds of cattle. They were famous horsemen. Their chiefs rode to battle in war-chariots, with which they fiercely charged the enemy. They were brave, polite, and enterprising, but fickle, suspicious and not very persevering. They lived for the most part in the country in scattered houses. When an enemy invaded their land they took refuge in great camps or *duns*, perched on high hill-tops and defended by thick walls of earth and deep ditches. They were very religious, and worshipped many gods. They did not build temples, but gathered together for worship in groves of oak or on the tops of hills. They



EARLY BRITISH POTTERY

showed great respect for their priests, who were called *Druids*. The Druids taught them the doctrine that the soul never dies. They were also their poets, prophets and judges. They were fond of poetry and songs, in which they told of the deeds of famous warriors. The Celts were divided into tribes, each of which had its separate chieftain. These tribes were constantly fighting with one another. The Celts dwelling in the south were called the *Britons*, and from them the island got its name of Britain.

**The
Druids**

4. Two thousand years ago the most powerful people in the world were the *Romans*. They were originally the inhabitants of the city of Rome in Italy. But they conquered all Italy, and then made themselves masters of all the civilized world. They were much wiser, stronger, and richer than the Britons. They looked upon the inhabitants of Britain as little better than savages dwelling in the remotest ends of the earth.

5. The most famous general and statesman that the Romans had ever had was *Caius Julius Caesar*. He brought about a great change in the government of his country. Before his time Rome was a republic, ruled by the nobles. But Caesar made himself lord over all the Romans, governing them as a general commands his soldiers. He thus became the founder of the Roman Empire, which included at that time all the countries round the Mediterranean.

6. Caesar was also a mighty conqueror. He added many new districts to the Roman dominions. The most famous of Caesar's conquests was that of *Gaul*, the country now called France. But the people of that land, the Gauls, were Celts, like the Britons. When they were hard pressed by Caesar, their kinsfolk, the Britons, went to their help. To punish the Britons for this, Caesar led two expeditions into Britain. The first of these took place fifty-five years before the birth of Christ. But Caesar did not bring enough soldiers with him, and soon found it wise to go back to Gaul. Next year he came again with a larger army, defeated the Britons and forced them to pay tribute to Rome. Besides being a statesman and warrior, Caesar was also a famous writer. He wrote an account of what he saw and did in Britain. It is from this we get our earliest full description of the land and the people.

**The
Romans**

**Julius Caesar
and the
Roman
Empire**

**Caesar's
Invasions
of Britain**

Before this time one can only guess, from the remains found when we dig up the graves or rubbish heaps, what happened of those people who used to dwell in Britain. From Cæsar's invasions onwards we have some sort of written story of British history.

7. For nearly a hundred years after Cæsar's invasions the Britons were left to themselves. It was a famous time in the world's history. During those years the great Roman Empire, which Cæsar had founded, became firmly established, so that all the lands round the Mediterranean Sea were now ruled by Roman emperors. Moreover, in

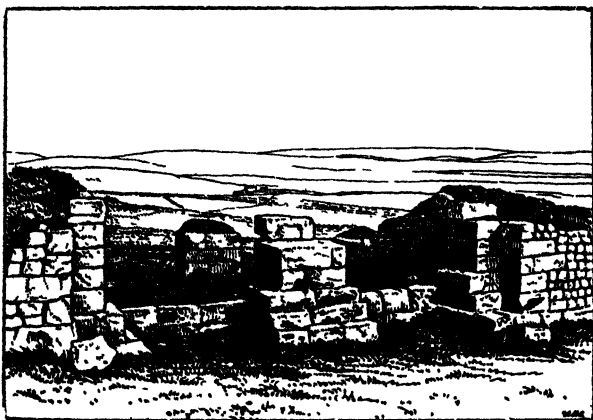


CAIUS JULIUS CAESAR

those same years, Jesus Christ lived and was crucified and the Christian religion began, though as yet very few people believed in it or had even heard of it. During this period the Romans forgot all about the Britons and the Britons once more became bold enough to help the Gauls against the Romans. So the Romans thought

**The Roman
Conquest of
South
Britain**

it best to turn Britain into a Roman province, ruled by a Roman Governor. Forty-three years after the birth of Christ, the Roman emperor *Claudius* sent an army to Britain and ordered it to conquer the land. But the Britons fought very bravely. In the end the Romans were satisfied with winning for themselves the southern part of the island. They built a rampart of earth between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, which marked the northern limit of their power. Beyond it, among



A PORTION OF THE ROMAN WALL

(Showing the West Gateway of *Borcovicus*, a Roman Station,
now *Housesteads* in South-west Northumberland)

the high hills of what we now call the Scottish Highlands, the Celts still remained free. These northern Celts were known as the *Caledonians*, and their land *Caledonia*. Later they were called *Picts* (painted people), because they painted their bodies with bright colours. As time went on, the Romans gave up any attempt to hold the northern part of their conquest. They fell back upon an earlier boundary wall running

from the Solway, near Carlisle, to the mouth of the Tyne, below Newcastle. This wall was very solidly built of stone, and long stretches of this great monument of Roman skill and power can still be seen in the wild moorlands of Northumberland.

8. Roman rule in southern Britain lasted for more than three hundred years. It brought much good to the land but also some little evil. The Romans gave the Britons such sound peace and strong rule as they had never enjoyed before. The Romans covered Britain with fair cities and pleasant country-houses. They fenced around their fortresses with strong walls of brick and stone. They planned hard, smooth roads to connect together the different parts of the country. So well were these roads made that they remained the chief means of communication, hundreds of years after the Romans had left the land. The Romans encouraged trade, opened out mines and fisheries, planted fruit-trees and vines, drained the marshes and cut down the dense forests. They grew so much corn that Britain was called the granary of Europe. They persuaded the British chiefs to learn the Roman or *Latin* tongue and the polished ways of Roman life.

Towards the end of their rule in Britain the Romans, and the Britons too, had nearly all become Christians. The old worship of many gods in which the Britons had believed, now disappeared. British missionaries, such as St. Patrick, crossed to Ireland, and converted the Celts who were living there, to Christianity. The Romans had never come in large numbers to Britain. But their army and their strong rule made the Britons feel very safe. So though the Britons went on talking their old language and following their old customs, they forgot how to fight and protect themselves.

9. At last the Roman Empire was attacked by strong

tribes from Germany and the Roman army was withdrawn in 410 to protect Italy. So the Britons were left to look after themselves. They had to face the Caledonians or Picts from the North. The Celts from Ireland, called Scots also gave trouble. They crossed to North Britain, and the land they settled on was called Scotland. More dangerous still were the wild tribes from Germany, known as the English who gave to it the modern name of England. They drove the old British inhabitants westward, and called them Welsh, and the land they lived in, Wales. But the England, Scotland, and Wales of those days were quite different in size and boundaries from those of later times. It took a very long time before the three peoples, the English, the Scots, and the Welsh, settled down side by side into something like their present homes.

**The begin-
nings of
England,
Scotland,
and Wales**

QUESTIONS

1. Who were the most ancient inhabitants of Britain? By whom was their place taken? Tell what you know of the mode of life and civilization of the Iberians.
2. From whom are many of the present inhabitants of Britain descended? Write a few sentences to show how they were more civilized than their predecessors. What do you know about their religion? What was the name given to their priests?
3. Who was the first Roman invader? What were the different stages in the Roman occupation and conquest of England? What good and evil did Roman rule bring Britain? When and why did the Romans leave Britain?
4. Cæsar first invaded Britain in 55 B.C. and the Romans occupied South Britain in 43 A.D. How many years since the first event did the second take place?

CHAPTER II

How the English came to Britain, and how they became Christians, 449-668

Principal Dates :

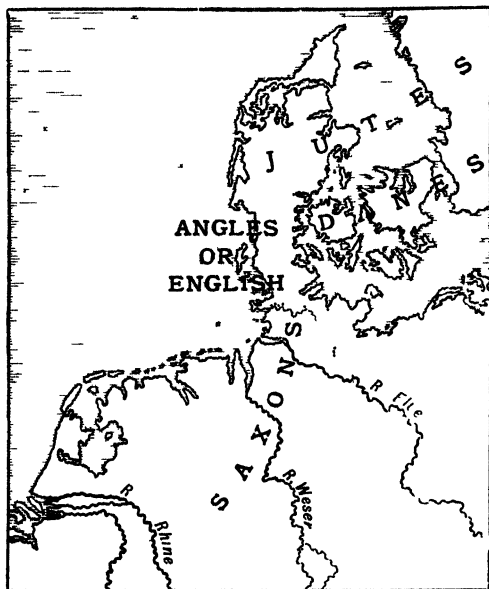
- 449. Landing of Hengist and Horsa.
- 597. Landing of St. Augustine.
- 627. Conversion of Edwin.
- 655. Penda slain in battle.
- 664. Synod of Whitby.
- 668. Theodore of Tarsus made Archbishop of Canterbury.

1. Before they came to Britain, the English had lived in North Germany, along the coast of the North Sea, and on the banks of the River Elbe. They were known as the Teutonic tribes and were divided into three main groups called the *Angles*, the *Jutes* and the *Saxons*. All of these took part in the conquest of Britain and settled permanently in the south-eastern part of the country. At first there was no common name for all the three groups of peoples. But gradually they found this necessary and took the name of *English*. This is only another form of the word

The Teutonic tribes—Angles, Saxons and Jutes *Angle*, but it was used in the wider sense, since the Angles or English took the most important part in the conquest of Britain. But the Welsh or Britons more usually called their enemies by the common name of *Saxons*. Sometimes, too, they are styled the *Anglo-Saxons*, which means the race formed by the union of the Angles and Saxons. But whether we call them English, Saxons, or Anglo-Saxons, we must never forget that they are the forefathers of most modern Englishmen. As time went

The English

on many men of British and Scottish blood gave up speaking their old Celtic language, and talked and lived like Englishmen. The language which the newcomers brought into the land was called English from



THE OLD HOMES OF THE ENGLISH

the first, and from it has grown the English which is spoken today.

2. The first English to settle in Britain were the Jutes. Their chieftains, *Hengist* and *Horsa*, set up in 449 the kingdom of Kent, which is much the same as the modern county of *Kent*. The little Jutish kingdom was soon surrounded by Saxon settlements, whose names live on in the modern counties of south-eastern England. Thus *Essex* was once the

**The English
Conquest
of South
Britain :
Heptarchy**

kingdom of the East Saxons, *Middlesex* that of the Middle Saxons, and *Sussex* that of the South Saxons. Much more important, however, than these was the great Saxon kingdom of the West Saxons, or *Wessex*. Beginning either in Hampshire, or in the upper Thames valley, it gradually spread over all southern England. To the north of the Saxon settlements came the Angles, or English in the narrower sense, who also set up many little states. Three of these Anglian states lasted longer and were more important than the others. One of these was *East Anglia*, the land of the East Angles or East English, including Norfolk (the North folk) and Suffolk (the South folk). In the lands between the Trent and the Thames, the great kingdom of *Mercia*, inhabited by the Mercians, stretched from the borders of East Anglia to the river Severn. *Mercia* means the *Murch* or the boundary district between the English and Welsh. But in those days this boundary was formed by the hills that separate the upper Trent from the Severn. To its north lay the kingdom of *Northumbria*, which took in all the lands between the Firth of Forth and the Humber.

3. In the western parts of South Britain the Welsh still held their own. There were three groups of Welsh states. In the north was *Cumberland*, or the land of the *Strathclyde Welsh*. This ran from the strath or valley of the river Clyde southwards to the river Mersey, and was cut off from Northumbria by the wild moorlands of the Pennine chain. South of the Mersey, Northumbria just reached to the Irish Sea, cutting off the Welsh of Cumberland from the Welsh of the district west of the Severn, parts of which are still called *Wales*. South of the Bristol Channel lived the *West Welsh* in Devon and Cornwall, who in their turn were cut off from the Welsh of Wales by the West Saxons conquering Somerset and the lands on the lower Severn.

The Welsh kingdoms

Thus the Welsh were split up by the English advance into three different districts separated from each other. Only their wild hills and barren moors enabled the Welsh to hold their own.

4. Beyond the Forth and the Clyde also changes were taking place. The Scots from Ireland had settled in the western islands and Highlands. They gradually encroached upon their Pictish neighbours, and, about four hundred years after this, a King of Scots became king of the Picts as well. The name of this king was *Kenneth Mac-Alpine*, and he died in 860. After this Scotland and Pictland remained united under a single king. From the days of Kenneth the lands north of Forth and Clyde bore the name Scotland, and the Picts disappear from history.

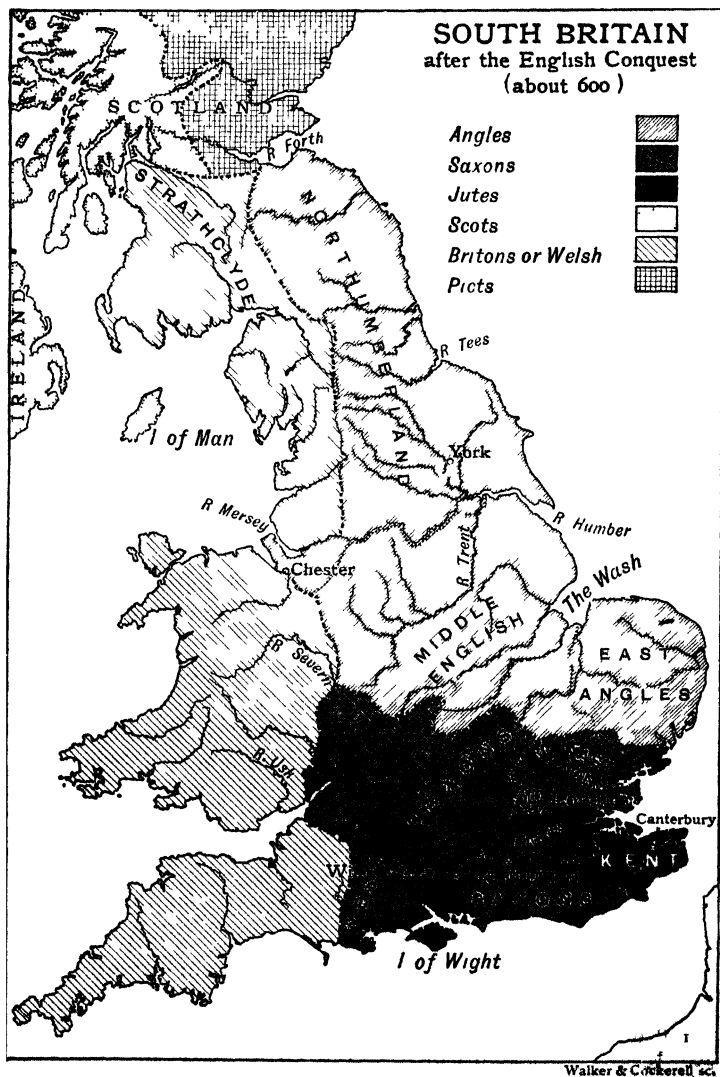
**The Picts
and the
Scots**

5. It took nearly one hundred and fifty years for the English to complete their conquest of south-eastern Britain. But they did their work very thoroughly. If any Britons remained in the English lands they remained as slaves, or were gradually forced to speak English and follow the English fashions. It was only in the west, where the English came later, that very many of the Britons lived on after the English Conquest. And in this long struggle most of the cities and great works left behind by the Romans were destroyed. For the English, like the Britons before the coming of the Romans, did not like to dwell in towns, and cared little for the arts of peace. They were, when not fighting, a pastoral and farming people, dwelling in scattered homesteads over the countryside. They conquered the Britons, not because they were braver, but because they were fiercer, stronger, and more persevering than their enemies. They had not been softened, like the Britons, by Roman civilization.

**Results of
the English
Conquest**

6. Each little English Kingdom cared only for

How the English came to Britain



itself, and before long there were as many wars between the various English states as there were between English and Welsh. But some good resulted from those struggles. The fiercer kings conquered the weaker, and so gradually cut down the number of little states into which the land had been split up. Sometimes one kingdom conquered another outright. More often, however, it was content with forcing the weaker state to bow down before it and acknowledge its supremacy. Thus the stronger kings became *overlords* over their feebler neighbours. Among the first kings who exercised such authority was *Ethelbert*, King of Kent, who reigned in that kingdom about a hundred and fifty years after the coming of Hengist and Horsa. We must remember the name of King Ethelbert, since it was during his rule that the first attempts were made to win over the fierce English to the Christian faith.

**The First
English
Overlords**

7. The English who came to Britain were heathens, worshipping the old gods of the Germans, such as *Woden* and *Thor*. The Welsh still remained Christians from Roman times but would not teach the hated English Christianity. As the Welsh were driven westward into the hills, the English stamped out nearly all traces of the Christian faith in eastern and southern Britain. It happened that a very good man named Gregory held the office of Bishop of Rome in the days when Ethelbert was king of Kent. Now the Bishop of Rome was looked upon as the first and greatest of all the bishops and as the head of the Catholic Church. He was generally called the *Pope*, that is the father.

**Pope
Gregory
the Great**

8. Gregory had seen some English lads in the slave market at Rome and so determined to convert England to Christianity. He sent his friend, the monk *Augustine*, and a band of monks to preach the gospel to the

English heathens. In 597 Augustine and his followers landed in Kent, and were well received by King Ethelbert. Before long Ethelbert and most of his people were baptized into the Christian faith. Augustine was made Archbishop of the English Church. He took up his residence at Canterbury, the royal city of the Kentish kings, and became the first Archbishop of Canterbury. This see is still the chief bishopric of England, and owes its position to the fact that the first English king to turn Christian was the King of Kent.

The landing of St. Augustine

9. Augustine and his monks proved zealous missionaries. They soon won the neighbouring kingdom of Essex and Middlesex also to the Christian faith. Here Augustine set up one of his followers as the first Bishop of London.

The Conversion of Edwin

But Augustine failed to win over all the English to the new doctrine. It cost long and severe struggles before Christianity became the religion of the whole land. The next great step forwards was in 627, when *Edwin*, King of the Northumbrians, who had married Ethelbert's daughter, went over to his wife's faith. He made *Paulinus*, who had gone from Kent to the north as her chaplain, the first Archbishop of York, the capital of Northumbria. This was the more important since Edwin was now the strongest of all the English kings, having more than succeeded to the power of Ethelbert.

10. Many of the English clung stoutly to their old gods. A leader arose in *Penda*, King of the Mercians.

The struggle between Christianity and the old religion

He was a mighty warrior who had conquered all the Midlands, and was jealous of the power of Edwin, as well as of the new faith. The Welsh joined Penda against the Northumbrian king. Edwin was slain in battle, and Paulinus driven back to Kent. But before long the Northumbrians found another

Christian king in *Oswald*, who had learned the faith from Irish monks. Penda slew Oswald, but could not root out the Christian faith. Before the end of his reign Penda was forced to confess himself beaten and allow the missionaries to preach the gospel, even in his own land of Mercia. In 655 Penda was slain by the Northumbrians in battle, and thereupon Mercia itself became Christian.

11. It still took some time before the Christian religion was firmly established in the land. Many of the English learned the faith not from Roman missionaries like Augustine, but from Irish or Scottish monks. Their ways of worshipping were not exactly the same as those of the Roman Church. There was therefore much conflict. At last the leaders of the two Churches—Roman and Celtic—met at Whitby to discuss religious matters. The meeting is called the *Synod of Whitby*. It was decided that Britain should follow the Roman Church. As a result of this the special customs of the Scots were gradually given up. All the dwellers in Britain were at last bound together by the fact of their common Christian faith. The coming of Christianity was of great importance, for all England was bound together in one Church long before it had one King.

**The effect
of the Con-
version of
England to
Christianity**

12. Slowly the change of creed changed the savage old ways of the English. The fierce warrior was no longer the only sort of Englishman. Wherever the Christian faith spread, there were found men and women who grew weary of the violence and bloodshed they saw everywhere around them. They had not much hope of making the world as a whole any better, so they withdrew as much as they could from it. They entered into houses called *Monasteries*, where they could live together with others like-minded with

**The monks
and their
work**

themselves, and devote their lives to prayer, study, and pious work. They took vows not to marry, not to hold money or lands, and to obey the abbot or head of the monastery. Those living this life were called *monks*, if men, and *nuns*, if women. It was through the labours of these monks that we get the first English history, the first English art, and much of the earliest English poetry. And long before there were English monks at all, Celtic monks sent their missions not only to England, but to the Continent also. The English owed them a debt as great as that which they owed to the holy men whom Gregory sent with Augustine to win them to Christ.

QUESTIONS

1. Who were the Teutonic tribes? Name the groups that settled in Britain. From what part of Europe did they come? Mention the kingdoms that made up the Heptarchy and tell by which tribe each of them was founded. Draw a map to illustrate your answer.
2. Point out the results of the English conquest.
3. What Gods did the English worship when they first came to Britain? Who was St. Augustine? Tell what work he and his followers did in England. By whom and how were they opposed? What benefits did England derive by the introduction of Christianity?

CHAPTER III

How the West Saxon Kings became Lords of all England, and how the Danes settled in the Land, 626-899

Principal Dates :

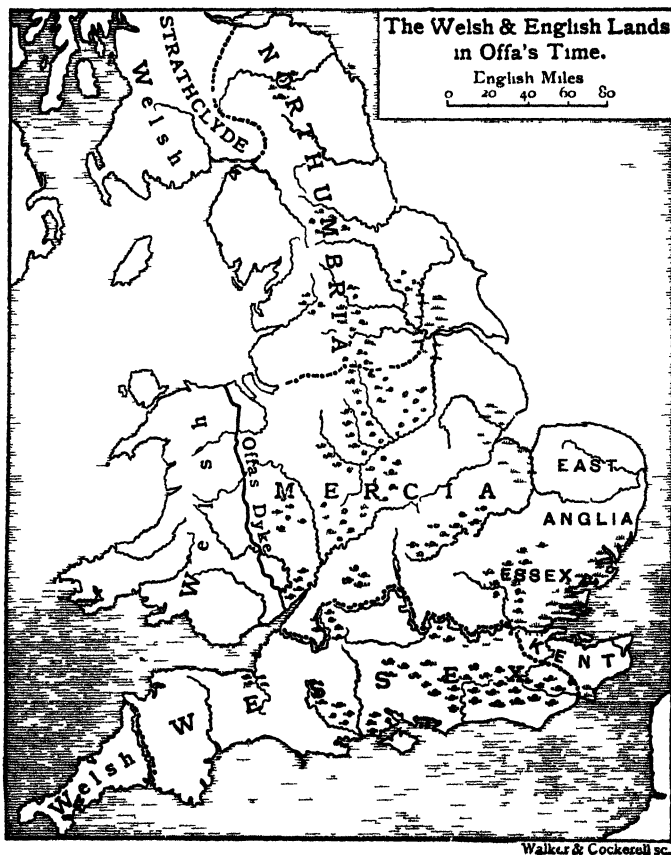
- 626-685. Northumbrian Overlordship.
- 716-821. Mercian Overlordship.
- 825-871. West Saxon Overlordship.
- 871. Great Danish Invasion and Accession of Alfred.
- 878. Treaty of Chippenham restores the West Saxon Overlordship.
- 899. Death of Alfred the Great.

1. We must now see how the many small kingdoms of England were united into a single state. Gradually the smallest kingdoms fell under the control of their more powerful neighbours. Thus Ethelbert of Kent was overlord over many English states. His son-in-law Edwin of Northumbria, made himself even more powerful. Though Penda and his Mercians twice overthrew the Northumbrian kings, the successors of Edwin triumphed in the end. Thus it was that the seventh century after Christ, which saw the establishment of the Christian faith among the English, also saw the setting up of what was called the *Northumbrian Overlordship*. The Northumbrian kings were strong men and clever soldiers, but, after 685, weak princes arose in the north, and then power passed away from Northumbria.

The North-umbrian Overlordship

How the West Saxon Kings became

Mercia, which covered the midlands, now became the chief English state, and its kings were overlords



over all England for the whole of the eighth century. The famous Mercian ruler *Offa the Mighty*, extended his power beyond the Severn. He dug *Offa's Dyke*

from sea to sea to separate his Mercian kingdom from his Welsh neighbours. After Offa's death Mercia became weak like Northumbria. Its power passed still farther southwards to Wessex, whose king, *Egbert*, defeated the Mercians in 825 and forced them to acknowledge him as overlord. Wessex now became the biggest as well as the strongest of the English Kingdoms. Canterbury, the seat of the Archbishop, was situated in it. The river Thames, the best of all England's highways, not only flowed through it but led towards Europe more directly. This helped Wessex a great deal to keep in touch with the more civilized nations of Europe, especially the French. Egbert's son, the pious and gentle *Ethelwulf*, was faced with a new trouble which threatened to undo all the good that kings like Offa and Egbert had worked. This was the coming of the Danes, or Norsemen.

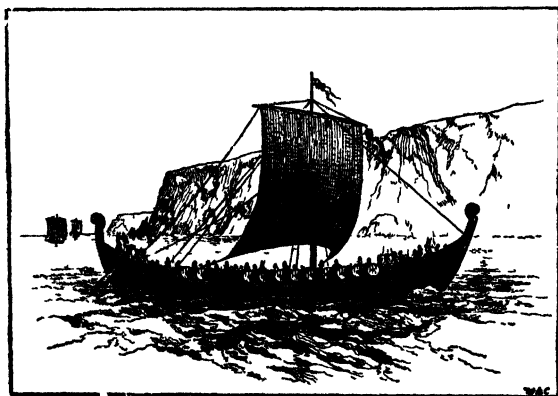
**The
Mercian
Overlord-
ship**

**The West
Saxon Over-
lordship**

2. The *Danes* and *Norsemen* lived in the extreme north of Europe, in Denmark and Norway. (See Map on p. 29.) They were now much in the same condition as that in which the English had been when they crossed over from North Germany to southern Britain. They were fierce warriors, obstinate heathens, very brave and hardy, but also very greedy and cruel. They were splendid sailors. They found that their own poor and cold lands could not support them all in comfort. They therefore formed the habit of setting forth every summer in their long, narrow, undecked ships to plunder the richer and sunnier lands of the south. In the winter they went home to their own land and revelled in their spoils. They filled all Europe with their expeditions, and spread terror far and wide. The weak king *Ethelwulf* was unable to withstand such fierce enemies. They plundered England whenever they chose. At last

**The Coming
of the Danes
or the
Northmen**

they found that the land was not only a good field for plunder but an attractive place for settlement. Henceforth they changed their object. Like the English four hundred years earlier, they too set up new homes for themselves in England. It seemed as if the English



A DANISH SHIP (*a reconstruction*)

were now going to suffer the fate they had themselves once inflicted on the Welsh.

3. Ethelwulf was already dead when the Danes began to settle in England. During the reigns of his four sons, who succeeded one after the other to the West Saxon throne, the Danes conquered Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia, and at last invaded Wessex itself. But they found their match in the famous *Alfred*, the youngest of Ethelwulf's sons. He became king of the West Saxons in 871, at the very moment when the heathens were plundering and laying waste the land. The young king withstood the invaders with all his strength. But they pressed him hard, and he was forced for a

**Alfred and
the Danes**

time to abandon his kingdom and hide in the marshes of *Athelney* in Somerset. He soon, however, came out of his hiding-place, and gathering his countrymen round him, won a great victory over *Guthrum*, the Danish leader.

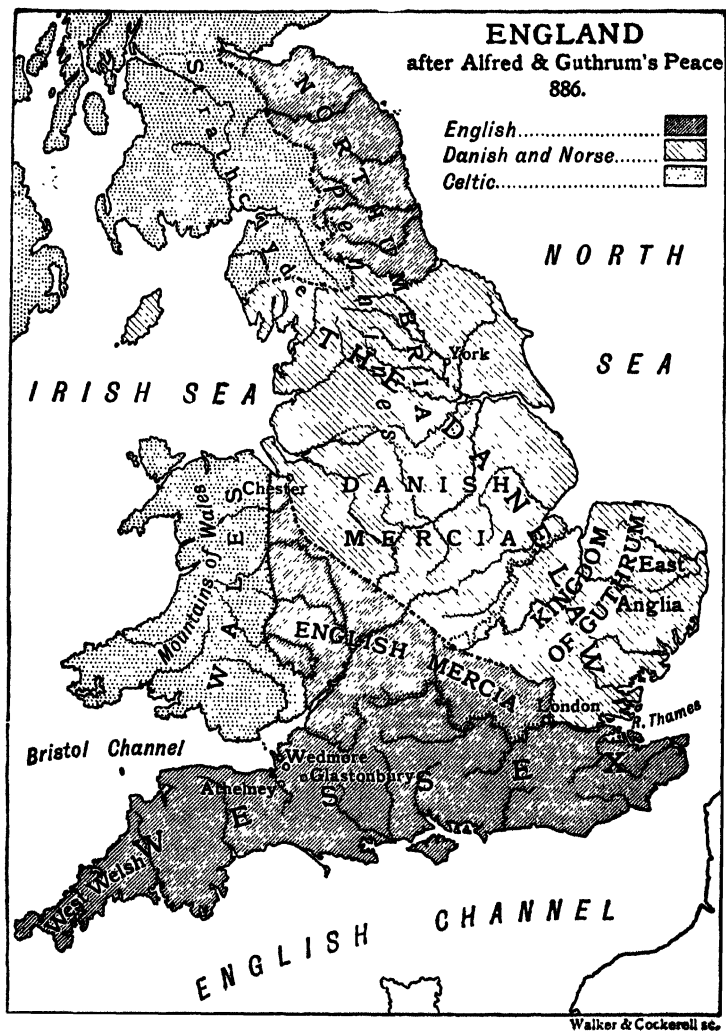
4. In 878 Alfred and Guthrum made a treaty at *Chippenham*, in which they agreed to divide England between them. This agreement is often called the *Treaty of Wedmore*, from a place in Somerset, where Alfred and Guthrum held further meetings a short time after-

Alfred's
treaties
with
Guthrum

wards. In a few years war broke out again. But Alfred won fresh battles over the Danes, and in 886 forced them to make a second treaty by which he secured still better terms for the English. After this second treaty London became part of Alfred's dominions. We do not exactly know where the dividing line between English and Danes ran. It is often thought that it followed for the most part the old Roman road from Chester to London, called the Watling Street. Thus it cut England into two halves. North of the line the Danes were to govern as they pleased, but south of it Alfred and his West Saxons were to rule. Moreover, the Danes promised to become Christians, and with their new faith they gradually left off their fierceness and cruelty. There were not perhaps very many of them, so that there was no need for them to drive away all the English from the parts of England over which they ruled. But they divided the lands among themselves, and forced the English to work for them, and governed them according to the Danish law. For this reason the parts of England north of Alfred's line were called the *Dane law*.

5. The Danes were not very different from the English in tongue and manners. Before long in the North and in the midlands, ruling Danes and conquered English were fused into a single people speaking the

How the West Saxon Kings became



English language. They differed from the more sluggish Southerners only by keeping a little of the fierceness and energy of the Danish pirates. You can still tell what parts of England were settled by the Danes by noticing in a map the districts where the word 'by' occurs as an ending to place-names. 'By' in Danish meant a village, a word which in English was expressed

**The Dane
law and
Alfred's
kingdom**

by 'ton,' or 'town.'

6. By concluding his final peace with the Danes, Alfred saved England from destruction. But he

**How Alfred
restored the
West Saxon
supremacy**

did much more than that. He enlarged the boundaries of Wessex by taking into it the great triangle of lands between the upper Thames, Offa's Dyke, and the boundary of the Dane law. Moreover, the Danes, in their conquest of the north and east, had broken down the old kingdoms of East Anglia, Northumbria, and northern Mercia. It is true that they set up in their place a large number of petty Danish states. But each of these was so small that it was easy for Alfred to make them acknowledge his supremacy as overlord. So the West Saxon overlordship, shaken for a time by the Danish invasions, was soon fully restored. Even the Welsh princes bowed before



KING ALFRED'S STATUE
AT WINCHESTER

a statesman as he was brave as a warrior. He looked so carefully after his subjects' welfare that he was able to repair the ravages of the Danish invasion, and make England once more free, peaceful, and prosperous. He rebuilt the churches and monasteries which the Danes had destroyed, and strove his best to fill them with pious priests and monks who might teach his people knowledge of better things. He loved learning, and delighted to summon to his court learned men. He set up schools, and wrote books for his people's sake. He collected the old laws together into a form in which men could read and understand them more easily. He had histories written or translated to tell his people how their forefathers had lived and what they had done. And above all, his own life gave his subjects a constant example of all that was pure, noble, and saintly. As pious and learned as a monk, Alfred yet lived in the world and for the world. His hard work and self-denial are the more praiseworthy since he was constantly troubled with ill-health. He died in 899, when still in the prime of life. By after ages he was called Alfred the Great, and few kings in history have a better right to that honourable name.

QUESTIONS

1. How far was Alfred successful against the Danes? How was Wessex advantageously situated to become the chief kingdom? Who was the king that brought it to that position?
2. What was the home of the Danes? What sort of people were they? Why did they invade England? Write a few lines about the struggle between Alfred and the Danes. What is meant by the Dane law?
3. What steps were taken by Alfred to meet the Danish invasions? How far was he successful? Tell what Alfred did in regard to the church, learning and law. Why is he called the Great?

CHAPTER IV

How England became one Kingdom, and how it was Conquered by the Danes, 899-1042

Principal Dates :

- 899-924. Reign of Edward the Elder.
- 959-975. Reign of Edgar the Peaceful.
- 960. Dunstan made Archbishop of Canterbury.
- 978-1016. Reign of Ethelred the Unready.
- 1016. Struggle of Edmund Ironside and Cnut.
- 1017-1035. Reign of Cnut.
- 1035-1042. Reigns of Harold Harefoot and Harthacnut.

1. Alfred had made a good beginning towards the unity of England. His successors were able to reap the full fruits of his victories. They were not so good or so wise as Alfred himself had been. But they were all famous warriors, and in those fierce, rough days no king could be successful unless he was a hard fighter. For more than fifty years England went on prospering. The Dane law was reconquered, and Alfred's successors were not content to be merely overlords. *Edward the Elder*, Alfred's valiant son, who reigned from 899 to 924, dropped, as we have seen, the title of King of the West Saxons, and called himself King of the English. Before long even this title was not good enough for the house of Alfred. Edward's son and successor, *Athelstan*, who reigned from 924-940, was even a mightier soldier than his father. Under his two brothers, *Edmund* (940-946) and *Edred* (946-955), who successively succeeded him to the throne, the English kings still further increased in power. Not only were all the English and Danes ruled by them, but the

Edward the Elder, first King of all the English, and Recovery of the Dane Law

Sons of Edward the Elder

Scots and the Welsh, and some even of the Irish acknowledged the overlordship of the English king and called him 'father and lord.' Proud that he was thus supreme over all the many kings of the island, the English monarch now began to borrow the titles of the old Roman emperors. He sometimes called himself Emperor of Britain. The whole of the islands had at last one master.

2. On Edred's death, his nephew *Edwy* (955-959) became king. Under Edwy, a sickly boy, there was a decline of prosperity. But on his early death his throne was filled by the most famous of the successors of Alfred, Edwy's brother, *Edgar the Peaceful*, who reigned from 959 to 975. A story is told how when Edgar visited Chester he was rowed down the Dee by eight Scottish and Welsh under-kings, who thus recognised his supremacy. But the greatest proof of his power was that during the sixteen years of his rule he kept England at peace. In no previous time in the history of the land had there been so many years of tranquillity.

3. Not all the prosperity of Edgar's reign was due to the king. Edgar had the good fortune to have as his chief minister the monk *Dunstan*. Dunstan was the first of the great statesmen who was not himself a king. He began life as a monk of the abbey of Glastonbury in Somerset, and early rose to be abbot or head of that house. He was soon called away from his peaceful home to help in ruling the kingdom. Under Edwy he was driven into banishment. But King Edgar recalled him, and made him Archbishop of Canterbury, so that he was the chief man, both in the English Church and in the English State. It was largely through the prudence of Dunstan that every part of England recognised Edgar as king. Dunstan found that some of the West Saxon nobles wished to rule harshly over Mercians, Northumbrians,

**The reign
of Edgar
the Peaceful**

**Archbishop
Dunstan**

and Danes. He therefore took pains to secure that every man should have his rights, and that no single part of the country should be supreme over any other part. It was through Dunstan's wise policy that the Dane law was allowed to keep many of its peculiar customs after it had been conquered by the English kings. He saw that unity could best be got by not laying too much stress on uniformity. It was only by letting them live after the fashion that they liked best that they could be taught to grow proud of the name of Englishman.

4. Statesman as he was, Dunstan never forgot that he was a monk and a bishop. During the long struggle with the Danes the religious life of England had declined. Though Alfred had done much to revive it, his work had not extended to the Dane law, where there was most need for reform. During Dunstan's rule a great religious revival broke out in England. This led to a great increase of the number of monks and monasteries in the country. Dunstan favoured this movement, because he thought that monks lived the highest sort of life, and that if there were more monks there would be more religion and learning. He therefore both set the old monasteries in order, and encouraged the building of new ones. He took care, also, to encourage learning and study. Under his guidance the monks read and wrote books. Thus he did as much good for his country as a churchman as he did as a statesman.

**The
Monastic
Movement**

5. Everything went well as long as Edgar was king and Dunstan was his minister. But terrible times began after Edgar's early death in 975. He left two sons, who reigned one after the other. But the first, *Edward the Martyr* (975-978), was soon murdered, and the second, whose name was *Ethelred* (978-1016), became king when a mere boy. All might have gone well if

**The reign of
Ethelred the
Unready**

Dunstan had remained the ruler of the country. But the enemies of the monks now won power, and drove Dunstan away. The great archbishop spent his last years peacefully, occupied only in the government of the Church. He lived, however, long enough to know that dark days were coming for England.

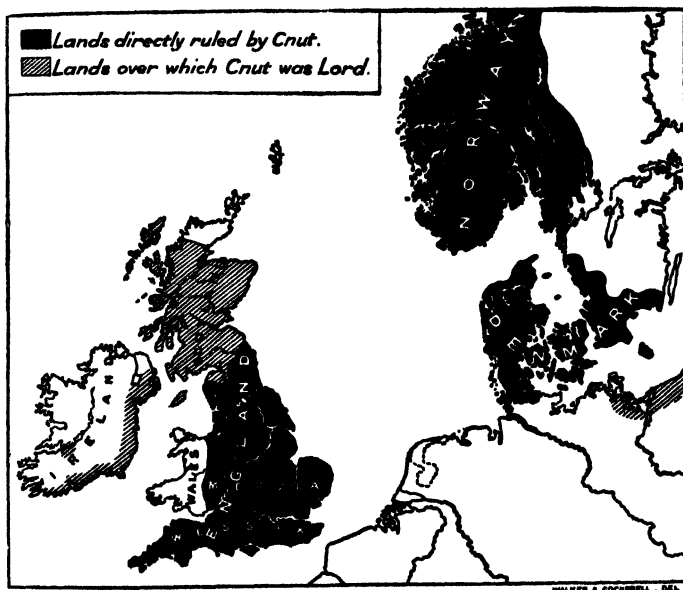
6. It was almost impossible in those rough times for a land to be well ruled when its king was a child. But matters did not get better when Ethelred grew up to manhood. He was too obstinate to be a good king; and men called him Ethelred *the Unready*, because he was always without '*rede*' or good counsel. Soon things fell back into a hopeless state. The land was filled with bloodshed and violence, and there was no strong king to protect his subjects or to do justice to the poor. Before long the Danes in Denmark heard how badly things were going in England. They were still eager for plunder, and soon began once more to take ship for England and play their old game of robbery. Thus the Danish invasions, which had almost ceased since Alfred's days, were renewed. Ethelred was too much of a coward to fight, so he tried the plan of bribing the Danes to go away. He raised a tax called *Danegeld*, (Danes' money), and paid it over to the Danes on the condition that they would leave England. Next year they came back again. The more King Ethelred bribed them, the more eager they were to return to a land where money was so easily to be won.

7. Ethelred now tried to massacre all the Danes settled in England. This *Massacre of St. Brice's Day* only infuriated *Swegen*, the fierce king of Denmark. He invaded England and soon conquered the whole land from the wretched Ethelred. Swegen died, but *Cnut* his son, a good fighter and a pious Christian, succeeded him. Ethelred also died in 1016, and his son, *Edmund*

**The Danes
renew their
invasion**

**Cnut
becomes
King**

Ironsides, was as brave a soldier as Cnut. The two kings at last agreed, like Alfred and Guthrum, to



CNUT'S DOMINIONS

(Showing the three great Earldoms in England)

divide the land between them. But Edmund died in a few months and all England acknowledged Cnut as its king.

8. Cnut was already King of all Denmark, and before long he also made himself King of Norway. But foreigner and conqueror though he was he soon proved a wise and a just King of the English. He was not only a famous warrior, but anxious to govern all his dominions well, and make them more Christian and civilized. He soon saw that the English, who had long been Christians, were better fitted to help him than

Cnut, King of Denmark, Norway and England

his barbarous fellow-countrymen the Danes. So, though he used Danes largely to do his fighting for him, he took Englishmen into his service to rule both England and Denmark. Thus it was that his reign was a period of great prosperity for England. The peaceful days of King Edgar were renewed, and Cnut strove to revive religion and encourage the useful arts. One very famous thing Cnut did was to go on a pilgrimage to Rome.

9. Cnut divided his English dominions into great districts, and set *Earls* to rule as the King's representative over Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex. This would have been a good thing, if the earls had remained obedient to the king. But they soon began to act as if they were kings in their own *earldoms*, without regard to the authority of their master. Thus English unity, which Cnut had restored, was once more threatened. Before long the great earldoms practically revived the old kingdoms. Cnut died in 1035, when still quite a young man. His two sons, *Harold Harefoot* and *Harthacnut*, reigned badly and died early. With the death of the latter in 1042, the line of the Danish kings came to an end.

The Great Earldoms

QUESTIONS

1. Who was the first king of all the English? Who was Dunstan? What posts did he occupy under Edgar, the Peaceful? Write a few lines about his work as a statesman. What did he do for the Church?
2. Why was Ethelred called the Unready? What was the condition of England during his time? What plan did he adopt to drive away the Danes from England? Why did Swegen invade England?
3. Who was the first Danish king of England? Why is he considered as a good ruler? Why did he divide the country into earldoms? How did this plan affect the country?

CHAPTER V

The Reigns of Edward the Confessor and Harold 1042-1066

Principal Dates :

1042-1066. Reign of Edward the Confessor.

1066. Reign of Harold. Battles of Stamford Bridge and Hastings.

1066. Christmas Day. Coronation of William the Conqueror at Westminster.

1. The greatness of the English monarchy ended with the sons of Cnut. After the death of Harthacnut in 1042, the English would have no longer a king of the house of Denmark. They called to the throne *Edward*, the son of Ethelred the Unready, and half-brother of Edmund Ironside. The new king was afterwards called Edward the Confessor and Edward the Saint, because of the holiness of his life. But though he was a good and pious man, he was weak, and better fitted to be a priest or a monk than a king. He reigned for twenty-four years, but he had not energy enough to carry out a policy of his own. He was always governed by some one stronger than himself. And his early education led him to trust men from strange lands rather than his English subjects. The result was that England, which had stubbornly resisted foreign fashions under her foreign king Cnut, seemed likely to be overrun by foreign influence as the result of the restoration of her ancient line of kings.

**Accession of
Edward the
Confessor**

**Norman
influence**

2. Edward's mother, Ethelred's second wife, was *Emma*, daughter of the Duke of the Normans. Edward himself had been brought up in his mother's country,

and always liked the Normans and their ways better than he did the English. He had many good reasons for doing so, for the Normans were the most active, energetic, brave, and clever of all the peoples in Europe in those days.

**The Normans
in France**

Though they were quite a young nation, they had already made themselves great and famous. Their land was *Normandy*, in the north of France, and their chief city was *Rouen*, on the Seine, where their duke lived. Normandy was not quite independent, for its dukes were the subjects of the kings of the French who reigned at Paris. But the Norman duke was almost, if not quite, as powerful as the French king, and could therefore do almost as he liked. The Normans spoke French, and followed the customs and manners of the French. But they were quite new-comers in France. Their ancestors were Danes and Norsemen, who made a settlement in the north of France a few years after Guthrum and his followers had established themselves in the English Dane law. Just as the Danes in England became like Englishmen, only fiercer and more energetic Englishmen than the older settlers in the land, so did the Northmen or Normans in France become the strongest and the most active of Frenchmen. When Edward became king of the English, his cousin William was Duke of the Normans. William was a wise and just, though hard and ambitious ruler, and Edward was very much influenced by him and his friends.

3. Edward invited many Normans to England, and granted them lands and high offices both in Church and state. He made several Normans earls, and made a Norman monk Archbishop of Canterbury. But the English hated foreigners, and particularly the pushing and energetic Normans. A great outcry arose against the Normans and *Godwin*, Earl of the West Saxons, put himself at the head of the party opposed to them.

**The House
of Godwin**

Godwin was the strongest Englishman of his day. The enormous power that he exercised showed how mighty a position had been gained by the great earls set up by Cnut. At first, however, Edward and his Normans were able to hold their own, and even drive Godwin and his sons into banishment. But next year they came back again and expelled most of the Normans. For the rest of his reign Edward was forced to give up most of his old friends, and rule according to the advice of Godwin and his family. Godwin himself soon died, but *Harold*, his eldest son, was now made Earl of the West Saxons, and soon became even more powerful than his father. He treated Edward kindly but firmly, and took care that the land was ruled by Englishmen and not by Normans. Harold had some difficulties, however. His brother *Tostig* had been made Earl of the Northumbrians, but he governed them so badly that the Northumbrians drove him into banishment. Thereupon *Morcar*, brother of *Edwin*, Earl of Mercia, became Earl of Northumbria. Now the House of Edwin and Morcar had long been the rival of the House of Godwin and Harold. The real struggle for power lay between them. As the earl's authority grew, that of the crown became weakened. It seemed as if England were again going to split up into three states.

4. Edward did not trouble himself very much about the quarrels of the earls at his court. He was now breaking down in health, and his only keen desire was that, before he died, he might finish a new abbey that he was building at *Westminster* in honour of St. Peter the Apostle. It was the finest monastery that had yet been set up in the land. Its church was of enormous size, and stood in strong contrast to the small churches hitherto built by the English, such as the one that still survives at Bradford in Wiltshire. Moreover, it was

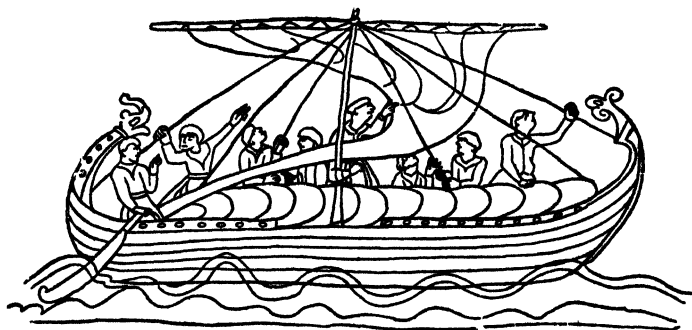
**The Death of
Edward the
Confessor**

fashioned after a new style of building that Edward now brought in from Normandy to England. The holy king just lived long enough to see his great church set apart for divine worship. A few days afterwards he died, in January 1066. He was buried in his own abbey at Westminster, under whose shadow he had passed away. When the fame of his holiness had spread abroad, men went on pilgrimages to his tomb and called him a saint. Two hundred years after this King Henry III pulled down Edward's church and built in its stead a still more magnificent one in the *Gothic* or pointed style, which was then coming into fashion. This is the Westminster Abbey which still stands, and in which all English kings are crowned and many of them lie buried. Behind the high altar of the abbey may still be seen in a little chapel the *shrine* or tomb of the sainted king.

5. Edward left no children. His nearest kinsman was a boy named *Edgar* (called the *Ætheling* or prince), a grandson of Edmund Ironside. But it was thought foolish to set up a child as king. As there was no grown man of the royal house at hand, the nobles resolved that *Harold*, Earl of the West Saxons, should be their king. At first sight it seemed a wise choice. Harold was the strongest of the earls, and had been for years the real ruler of the kingdom. But he was not of the sacred royal house, and the other nobles soon became jealous of the man whom they looked upon as their equal. Thus the strong earl proved a weak king, though he fought bravely and did all that he could to uphold his authority. But Edwin and Morcar now tried to rule Mercia and Northumbria as if they were kings themselves. Moreover, the news soon came that two foreign rulers were preparing to invade England. These were *Harold Hardrada* (that is, Hard in rede or counsel), King of the Norwegians, and the dead

**Harold
made
king**

king's cousin, *William*, Duke of the Normans. It would appear that Edward the Confessor had promised his cousin William, who visited him in 1051, to make him his successor to the throne. Harold, two or three years before his succession, had been shipwrecked in France. The Lord of the District where the wreck had taken



HAROLD RETURNING TO ENGLAND

(*Bayeux Tapestry*)

place threw him into prison. William, however, procured him his release and got from him a promise that he would help him to become King of England after Edward. But as Harold had been declared the King, the Norman Duke claimed the throne as King Edward's heir. He also wanted to punish Harold for breaking his promise.

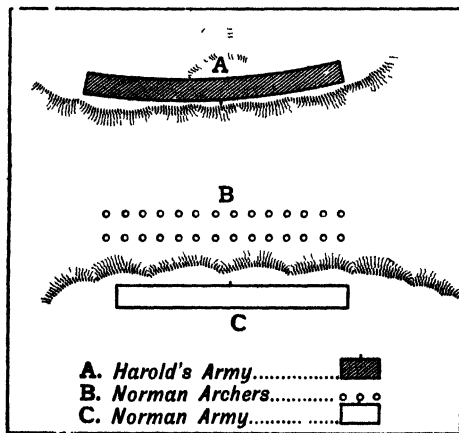
6. In the summer, Harold of Norway landed in the North with Tostig, King Harold's banished brother. King Harold marched north and won a fierce battle at *Stamford Bridge*. The Norwegian king and Tostig were both slain on the field. News now reached Harold that William of Normandy had landed in Sussex, and he hurried to the south to deal with this second foe.

**Harold
defeats
Harold
Hardrada**

Reign of Harold

7. The decisive battle was fought at a place about seven miles north of Hastings. Harold placed his troops on a hill, and arranged them in close order and they fought on foot after the ancient English fashion. The Normans fought on horseback according to the newer custom of the French, charging the English, while their archers galled the English with their arrows. The English wall of footsoldiers would not be broken till William tempted them to advance by pretending to flee. But the Nor-

The Battle of Hastings



BATTLE OF HASTINGS

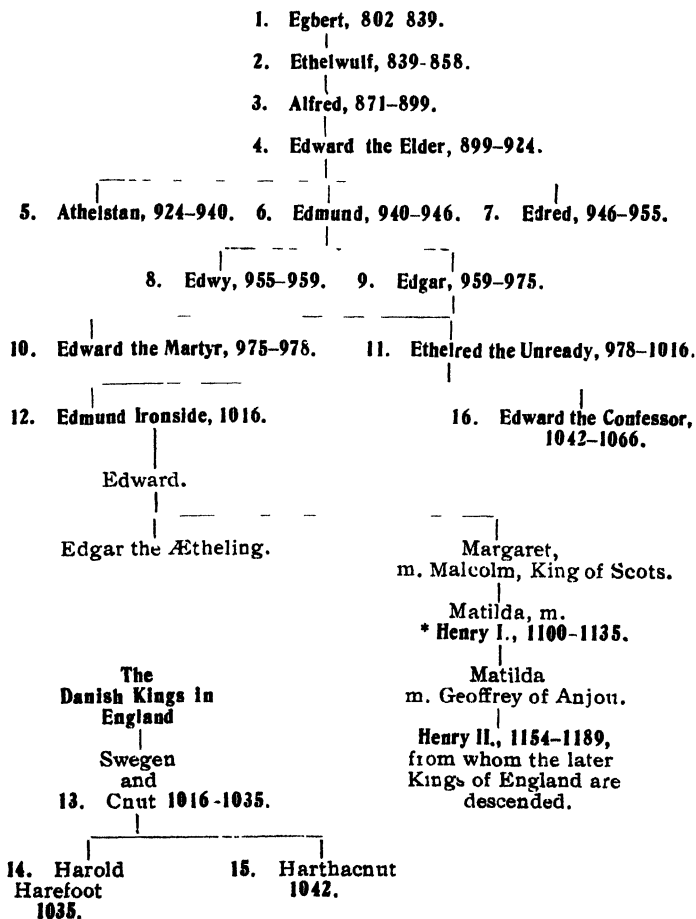
man horsemen turned and rode them down. Harold died a soldier's death on the field. The victorious Normans marched through the southern counties at their will, and at last took possession of London. Thereupon the panic-stricken English made the best of a bad job and chose William as their king. On Christmas Day 1066, the Norman Duke was crowned King of the English in Edward the Confessor's new abbey of Westminster.

QUESTIONS

1. What right had Edward the Confessor to the throne? Why was he so called? What led to the growth of the Norman influence under him? Who were Harold and Godwin? What part did they play in fighting against the Norman influence?
2. Why was Harold chosen king after the death of Edward the Confessor? Which of the foreign rulers invaded England? What claims were put forward by William to the throne of England? Tell what you know of the battles of Stamford Bridge and Hastings.
3. Give the genealogical table of the kings of England from 802-1066 A.D.

Reign of Harold

GENEALOGY OF THE CHIEF ENGLISH KINGS OF THE WEST SAXON HOUSE,
SHOWING THE DESCENT OF THE LATER KINGS FROM THEM.



* For the genealogy of the Norman Kings, see page 63.

CHAPTER VI

English Life and Government before 1066

1. Up to the Norman Conquest, the English lived a very quiet, stay-at-home life. The land was very thinly peopled, and most of the country was still taken up with waste, forest, moor, and fen. There were few towns, and little trade. The greatest city was London, which ever since Roman times had been the chief centre of commerce in the land. But London was not yet the capital, since the kings of the house of Wessex still preferred to live at the old West-Saxon royal city of Winchester. With the founding of Westminster Abbey, however, Westminster gradually became the chief residence of the king.

Town life

2. Nearly everybody still lived in the country, and most free Englishmen possessed a plot of land. The English were therefore a nation of farmers and herdsmen, delighting in a simple out-of-door life. Agriculture was very primitive, and little was grown except corn. Flocks and herds were the chief source of wealth. Even the houses of the rich were very rude and ill-built, being constructed mainly of wood. The greater part of the house was taken up by one large room called the hall. There were no glass windows, and the very few openings to let in air and light were covered with oiled rags. There were no chimneys, and the smoke of the great fire, which blazed on a hearth in the centre of the hall, made its way out of the building through a hole in the roof. But though life was rough, there was plenty of meat and bread, ale and mead, and the English of those days loved feasting and good cheer.

Country life

The rich had some luxuries, and were fond of jewellery. A famous example of this is the Alfred jewel, which was dug up at Athelney, and of which a picture is here given. It may possibly have belonged to



GOLD JEWEL OF ALFRED FOUND AT ATHELNEY
(Now in the Ashmolean Museum, Oxford)

King Alfred himself, and bears the inscription, 'Alfred had me wrought'. The people amused themselves out of doors by hunting, and indoors by singing songs, telling stories, and solving riddles. But perhaps their chief diversion was hard drinking.

3. The times were rude, and it was hard to make strong men obey the law. Yet the law was not very severe according to our notions. Most crimes, even murder, could be atoned for by a money payment. The sum of money paid by a murderer to the kinsman of the victim was called the *Wergild*. It varied in amount according to the rank of the victim. It was thought important that every freeman should possess land, not only because it enabled him to earn his own livelihood, but also because in that case, if he did any wrong, his land could be seized by way of punishment.

**Crime and
punish-
ments**

Those who did not possess land were compelled to choose a lord who would be responsible for their acts.

4. The lowest class of the population consisted of slaves or *theows*, who, like horses and cattle, were the absolute property of their owners. Many of these were the descendants of those who had been slaves for many generations. But criminals were often made slaves, and in times of famine it was not uncommon for men to sell themselves in order to obtain bread. **Slaves**

5. The simple freeman, called the *ceorl* or *churl*, was the backbone of the community. Yet as time went on the nobles became more and more powerful. They became great owners of land, had many slaves, and were the lords of many landless men, and even of many small landholders. The most important of the nobles were called the *king's thegns* or servants. These thegns received large grants of land from the king, and were bound to fight for him in his wars. **Freemen and thegns**

6. There were no regular soldiers in those days like the modern standing army, but every man was called upon to fight for his country when occasion arose. There was so much fighting, moreover, that each freeman had plenty of chances to gain experience as a soldier. The army, called the *fyrð*, consisted then of the whole nation in arms. But the *fyrð* disliked staying long in the field or going great distances to fight, so that the king had to depend on the thegns and their followers, who were more accustomed to military life and discipline, when serious warfare had to be waged. **The army**

7. The king was the head of the nation, and was treated with great respect. He nearly always belonged to the royal house of Wessex, but on each king's death his successor was elected by the nobles. They almost always chose the **The king**

son of the last ruler, if there were a son alive who had reached manhood. Yet a youthful son was often set aside in favour of a full-grown brother of the last king. It was thought very important that the monarch should himself be able to rule. But several boys were chosen kings for want of better qualified members of the royal house. The cases of Cnut and Harold show that it was not impossible for the electors to go outside the West Saxon line altogether.

8. The king was elected, and when appointed was advised by a great council called the *Witenagemot*, that is the Meeting of the *Witan*, or Wise Men. It was not a representative body like the modern House of Commons, but was more like the House of Lords. It consisted of great officials, such as the aldermen or earls of shires, the bishops and abbots, the king's kinsmen, and also of the king's thegns or chief nobles. The king was supposed to do nothing without consulting this body. Though a strong king could generally get his own way, a weak one was very much dependent upon his nobles and bishops.

9. The land was divided into *shires* or counties. Some of these originated in the ancient kingdoms of the English, such as Kent or Sussex, while others, like the shires of the Midlands, were mere divisions made for convenience. In each shire there was a court called the *shire-moot*, or county court. This was a very important body. It was the chief court of justice, and all trials of importance were conducted in it. It was also a sort of popular assembly, consisting of all the great men of the shire, and also of representatives of the various *townships* into which the shire was divided. Between the shire and the township stood an intermediate division called the *hundred*, or, in the Dane law, the *wapentake*. This also had a court, called the

**The Wite-
nagemot**

**Shires
hundreds,
and
townships**

hundred-moot, which, like the shire-moot, consisted of representatives of the different townships included in it. In this court took place trials of less importance than those which were held in the shire court. All these local courts were very strong and popular. They had been going on for a very long time, and Englishmen in those days thought a great deal more about their own neighbourhood than they did of the land as a whole. This was one of the reasons why it was so hard to make England a united nation. But this union of England, which the sluggish, easy-going old English could never thoroughly bring about, was now to be accomplished by their strenuous, energetic, and remorseless Norman conquerors.

QUESTIONS

1. Tell what you know of the English before the Norman Conquest under the following heads:—

(a) Occupations and modes of life of the people in towns and villages.

(b) System of laws and punishments.

(c) Society and classes.

(d) Political divisions of the country.

2. How was the army formed? How and on what principles was the king chosen? Tell what you know of the Witenagemot.

BOOK II

NORMAN AND ANGEVIN BRITAIN, 1066-1216

CHAPTER VII

The Norman Kings of the English, 1066-1154

Principal Dates :

- 1066-1087. Reign of William I., the Conqueror.
- 1071. Hereward's Camp at Ely captured.
- 1086. The Domesday Book drawn up.
- 1087-1100. Reign of William II., Rufus.
- 1095. First Crusade preached.
- 1100-1135. Reign of Henry I.
- 1135-1154. Reign of Stephen.

1. William I., called the *Conqueror*, was a fierce and ruthless king. He ruled his new kingdom with a much firmer hand than any of the kings who had gone before him. Edwin and Morcar, the Earls of Northumbria and Mercia, soon found that William would not allow them to govern their earldoms after their own pleasure, as they had done in the days of Edward the Confessor and Harold. They felt sorry that they had ever agreed to make him king, and before long rose in revolt against him. But William and his Norman followers easily put down their rebellions and took their earldoms away from them. Even after this the English kept on rising in arms against their foreign sovereign. But as in

**The Norman
Conquest**

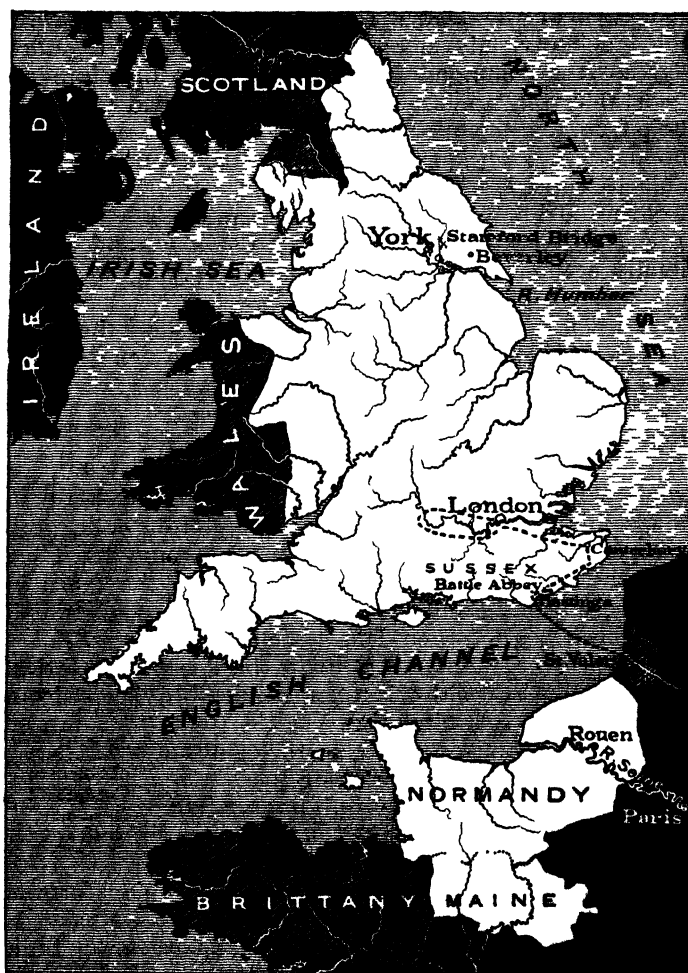
the days of the Danish invasions, the English were too much divided among themselves to work together against the common enemy. There was therefore no general revolt, and the districts that rebelled got little help from their countrymen outside their own neighbourhood. The consequence was that the Normans were able to conquer the land bit by bit, and the English won no advantage from their numbers or their bravery. The North was the hardest part to subdue, and it was finally secured by William only after laying waste all the most fertile parts of Yorkshire.

2. Even after this, some of the bravest of the English still held their own in the desolate fen country which cut off East Anglia from the Midlands. Headed by the heroic *Hereward*, they built a camp of refuge in the *Isle of Ely*, a little piece of solid ground in the midst of a wilderness of marsh and water. But at last William made his way even to this remote stronghold, and compelled Hereward and his followers to submit. Thus after nearly four years of hard fighting, the Norman conquest of England was completed by 1071. It had only been begun when Harold fell at Hastings.

**Hereward
subdued**

3. All over the land William built strong castles, which he filled with Norman soldiers to keep down the English. At first these castles were formed by wooden palisades enclosing a moated mound. But before long these were replaced by solid stone buildings. The most famous of these latter is the *Tower of London*, which was set up to overawe the Londoners. Another very strong Norman fortress is Rochester Castle, built in the time of Henry I. Sometimes these castles had a high square tower built of solid stone, called the *keep*, with walls of enormous thickness. Sometimes the keep was more lightly built on the top of a mound of earth, and was further

**The effects
of Norman
Conquest :
Norman
castles**



William's English and Norman Dominions.....
 Lands over which William was Lord
 Foreign lands.....
 Course of William I. from St. Valery to London.....

THE DOMINIONS OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

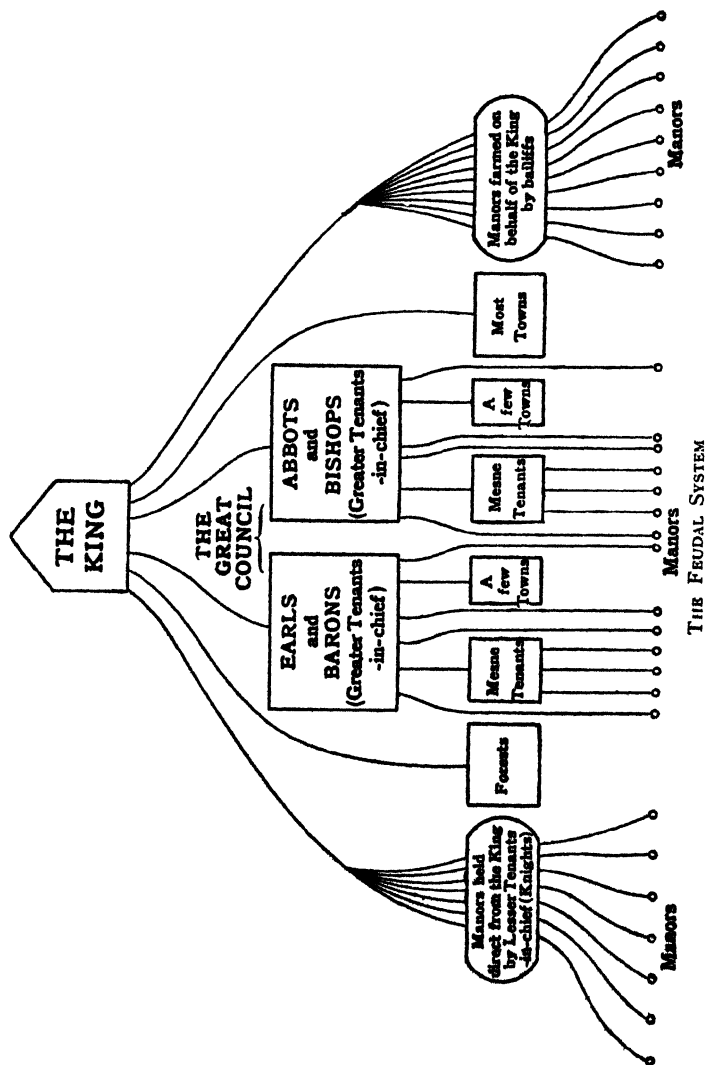
protected by deep ditches filled with water, and high earth-works crowned with solid stone walls. As soon as a castle was built the surrounding district was certain



KEEP OF ROCHESTER CASTLE
(Built between 1126 and 1139)

to be conquered, since the English had no way of capturing these strongholds, in which a few Normans might wait quietly until the king sent enough soldiers to put down a rebellion.

4. William took away from the English most of their



lands and gave them to his Norman followers. He required, however, that every man who received from him a grant of land, called a *fief*, should take an oath that he would be faithful to the king. He should also, as a sort of rent, be bound to send a certain number of soldiers to fight the king's battles. Such a man was called the king's *baron*, or *vassal*. The grantor of the land was called the *lord* of the vassal. In the same way the king's barons granted their land to others, who bound themselves by similar oaths and promises of service to the barons who thus became their lords. There was always a danger lest a man should uphold his nearest lord even against the king, and William tried to prevent that by ordering all landholders to take special oaths that they would be true to the king against all men. The system, thus set up by William, was called *feudalism*, or the *feudal system*.

The Feudal System

5. The result of all these changes was that the English became the vassals and dependants of the Norman barons who had helped William to conquer the country. The English had no longer any leaders, since William took away their lands from the English nobility and gentry, and thus reduced them to poverty. The king knew very well that his fierce Norman barons did not win the land for himself only, but would insist on being well paid for their trouble. He was therefore compelled to hand over to them the lands which he had seized from the English. But the king had learned by long experience in Normandy that his nobles were not to be trusted. They wanted to get as much power as they could into their own hands, and therefore tried to prevent the king from becoming too strong. William, however, did his best to prevent them from getting powerful. He took good care that no Norman baron should rule such great tracts of land as Edwin

The king and the Norman barons

and Morcar had done. He put an end to the great earldoms which, ever since Cnut's days, had been breaking up the unity of the land. Instead of giving his followers wide stretches of land in the same districts, he followed the custom of earlier kings in bestowing on them a large number of little estates scattered all over the country. This policy annoyed the Normans very much, and they rose in revolt against William as often as they dared. Very often they used the castles built to keep down the English as the means of resisting the authority of the king. But William showed that he was too strong for his barons.

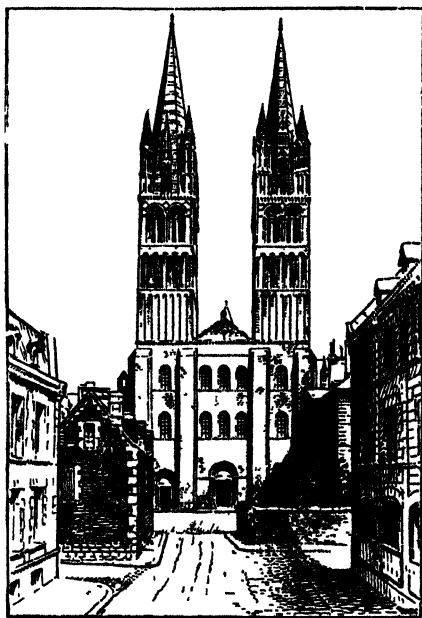
6. In a few years the Conqueror managed to win over the English to his side. The poor English soon found out that the barons were far worse tyrants than the king. William wished all those who obeyed his rule to live in comfort and peace. He often protected the English from the tyranny of the petty Norman barons who were their direct lords. It soon became a matter of course that the English fought for the king against his Norman barons. Through their help William made himself one of the strongest kings in Europe. He tried to please them by carrying on as far as he could the old customs of the English. He said that he was the rightful heir of Edward the Confessor, and that he would therefore rule the land by Edward's own laws. But besides this William was a just man, terrible to his enemies, but kind to those who did his bidding. For all these reasons the changes brought about by the Norman Conquest, great as they were, were not very great. They would have been greater if William had not needed the English people to help him against the unruly Norman barons.

7. William brought about almost as many changes in the Church as in the State. He got rid of nearly all the English bishops and abbots, and put Normans

**William and
the English**

or other foreigners in their places. He gave the archbishopric of Canterbury to *Lanfranc*, a learned and able Italian monk who had long lived in Normandy. Lanfranc and William reformed the whole condition of the English Church. They made the clergy more active, hard-working, and better educated. They set

The Norman Conquest and the Church



CHURCH OF ST. ETIENNE (STEPHEN), CAEN
(Containing the tomb of William the Conqueror)

up new monasteries, and gave them rich grants of land. They covered the country with vast and noble churches and cathedrals built after the Norman

fashion. It was first brought into the land when Edward the Confessor founded Westminster Abbey. A magnificent example of the Norman style of building can still be seen in the church of St. Stephen at Caen, of which William was the founder, and in which he lies buried. One result of the changes now introduced into the Churches was that the Pope became more powerful in England than he had ever been before. In Church as in State the English had to give way to the foreigners. For a long time the Normans held all the high posts. French took the place of English as the language of the upper classes.

8. The Normans were the most restless and enterprising people in Europe. They brought into England all sorts of changes that the English would have been too lazy to introduce if they had been left to themselves. Hence it was that, though they did much evil, on the whole they did more good than harm. Gradually they taught the English some of their energy and spirit. In order to carry out his reforms properly William I. wished to raise as heavy taxes as he could. With this object he tried to find out how much land and other property everybody possessed, as he could then tax each man in proportion to his means. He therefore drew up a book called the *Domesday Book*. In it was written down, as if for the day of doom or judgment, what lands there were in England, who held them, and how much he was bound to pay the king for them. The English grumbled at all these things being put on record, for they knew it would enable the king to get every possible penny of taxes from them. But we have reason to be grateful to William. His *Domesday Book* gives us an enormous amount of information as to the state of England at this period. Like most books of the time, it was written in Latin.

William the Conqueror, we are told, loved the tall deer as if he had been their father. He made large forests wherein wild beasts might roam freely, and ordered that any man who killed a deer or a boar should be blinded. In Hampshire he drove out the inhabitants of many villages in order to make the forest which is still called the *New Forest*.

9. William had three sons, *Robert*, *William*, and *Henry*. The eldest, Robert, was a good-natured, easy-going man, and a brave soldier. But he was not so strong or so clever as his father. The second son, William, called *Rufus*, or the red, from the colour of his hair, was more a man after the Conqueror's own heart. He was fierce, strong, and cruel, but he was neither so just nor so religious as the old king. But England in those days had need of a vigorous ruler, and the Conqueror on his death-bed declared that he wished William and not Robert to succeed him.

**The Con-
queror and
his sons**

10. In 1087, through Lanfranc's help, William Rufus became William II., and Robert was forced to content himself with the duchy of Normandy. But the Norman barons in England preferred Robert to William, since they saw that they would be more likely to get their own way under his weak and careless rule. They therefore several times rose in revolt, but William with the help of the English was able to put down these rebellions easily.

**The reign
of William
Rufus**

11. The aged Archbishop Lanfranc soon died, and William became more greedy, fierce, and brutal than before. He refused to appoint a new Archbishop of Canterbury. There were two reasons for this. Firstly, he wished to keep in his own hands the rich lands of the archbishop. Secondly, he was afraid lest the new archbishop, like Lanfranc, would act as a curb on his evil desires.

**William II.
and Anselm**

At last William allowed *Anselm* to be chosen. Anselm was a very learned man who wrote famous books, but he was as gentle, holy, and simple as he was learned. To William's disgust Anselm felt that it was his duty to uphold all the ancient rights of the see of Canterbury. He strove to teach the king and his courtiers the way to a more honest and noble life. The king was furious and Anselm was forced to leave the country and to remain in exile for the rest of Rufus' reign. At last one day in 1100 the wicked king was shot through the heart by an arrow from an unknown hand while hunting, and every one was thankful at his death.

12. Many of the barons wanted to make Robert, the Conqueror's eldest son, king, but Henry I., the youngest son, was chosen instead. He was cruel and selfish, but he made a far better king and a much more popular one than Rufus. Born on English soil after his father had been crowned king, he was looked upon as half an Englishman. He married *Matilda*, daughter of *Malcolm*, King of Scots. This lady was descended through her mother from the old West Saxon kings. (See page 44.) Through her the later English kings are descended from Alfred, as well as from William the Conqueror. This marriage still further increased Henry's popularity with the English, who supported him in putting down the revolts of the barons in favour of Robert. After six years, in 1106, he conquered Normandy, and once more brought the duchy under the English crown. Robert was captured and imprisoned for life.

13. When Henry became king, Anselm came back to England. A quarrel soon broke out between him and the king. The quarrel arose in this way. It had been the custom for the bishops to receive the ring and staff, the symbols of their authority, from the king.

They also did homage to the king for the lands they held. Now Anselm objected to this system of *investiture* as it was called, by the king and refused to do homage to him. The good archbishop was for a second time driven into exile. However, things were not as bad now as they had been in Rufus' time, and before long Henry and Anselm found out a way of settling their differences. The archbishop went back to England and became for the rest of his life the king's close friend and helper.

**Quarrel of
Henry I. and
Anselm**

14. Henry raised heavy taxes and cruelly put down all rebellions. But under his rule the land once more became prosperous. Men called him the *Lion of Righteousness* because of his justice, and an English monk thus spoke of him at his death: 'He was a good man, and great was the awe of him. No man durst ill-treat another in his days. He made good peace for man and beast.'

**Henry I.'s
just rule**

15. A great sorrow clouded Henry's old age. This was the death of his son *William*, who was drowned in the wreck of a fine new vessel called the *White Ship*. Henry now sought to persuade his barons to allow his daughter *Matilda* to reign after his death. The barons were unwilling partly because they did not like to be ruled by a woman, and partly because Matilda was married to *Geoffrey*, Count of Anjou, and the Normans hated the Angevins, as the men of Anjou were called. But the king's will prevailed, and all the barons took oaths to obey Matilda as their future queen.

**The death of
Henry I.**

16. Henry I. died in 1135. Thereupon the barons broke their promises, and chose as their king *Count Stephen of Boulogne*, Henry's nephew, and a grand-son of the Conqueror. Stephen was a mild, good-natured,

and kindly man, a brave soldier, and the most lovable of all the Norman kings, but he was too weak to control the barons. Before long Matilda came to England and claimed her father's throne. A long civil war followed. Some of the barons upheld Stephen and others Matilda.

**Anarchy
under King
Stephen**

But most of them only wished that the quarrel should go on as long as possible so that neither rival for the throne should get the upper hand over the other. At last Matilda gave up the struggle in despair, but even then Stephen could not restore law and order. As he grew old, Henry of Anjou, Matilda's son, came to England to revive his mother's claim. The broken-spirited Stephen recognised Henry as his successor, if he were allowed to go on reigning until his death. Henry agreed and went back to France. Thus Stephen remained king, so far as the title went, until his own death in 1154. But for all these nineteen years he had been king only in name.

17. An English monk has told us of the terrible state of the country during Stephen's reign. 'Every rich man built castles and filled them with evil men. They took those who had any goods and tortured them with pains unspeakable, for never were any martyrs tormented as these were. Many thousands died of hunger. Thou mightest walk a whole day's journey without seeing the lands tilled. Then was corn dear and flesh, for there was none in the land. The land was all ruined by such misdeeds, and it was said openly that Christ and his saints slept.' These terrible years taught the people what the rule of the nobles meant, and how everything depended on restoring the power of the crown. The lesson was so well learned that England never again had to suffer as she suffered under King Stephen.

**State of
England
during the
war between
Stephen and
Matilda**

QUESTIONS

1. How did the English show their dislike of the new king? What part was played by Hereward in this national revolt?

2. What is meant by the Feudal system? How did it affect the English? How did William check the power of the Norman barons? What were his relations with the English? Did the English benefit in any way by the Norman rule?

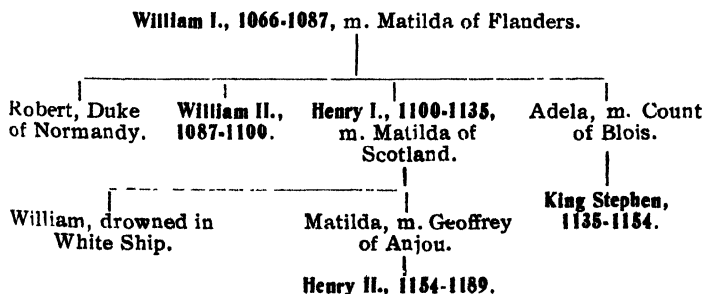
3. Tell what you know of the Domesday Book and why it was compiled. How was it useful?

4. What changes and reforms were introduced by William in the Church? Who helped him in this task?

5. Who was Anselm? Why did he and William II. quarrel? Why was Henry I. called the 'Lion of Righteousness'? What was the dispute between him and Anselm due to?

6. What were the respective claims of Stephen and Matilda to the throne? Write a few lines about the condition of the country during the war between them.

GENEALOGY OF THE NORMAN KINGS.



CHAPTER VIII

Henry II. (of Anjou), 1154-1189

(Married Eleanor of Aquitaine)

Principal Dates :

- 1154. Accession of Henry II.
- 1164. Henry quarrels with Archbishop Thomas.
- 1166. Assize of Clarendon.
- 1170. Murder of St. Thomas.
- 1171. Henry becomes Lord of Ireland.
- 1181. Assize of Arms.
- 1189. Death of Henry II.

1. With Henry II.'s accession begins a new race of English kings. It is generally called the *Angevin family*, or the *House of Anjou*, from Henry's father, Count *Geoffrey* of Anjou.

The House of Anjou

It is also sometimes called the *House of Plantagenet*, from the yellow broom-flower, called in Latin the *Planta genista*, which Count Geoffrey wore in his helmet by way of a badge. Under him the houses of Normandy and Anjou, hitherto rivals and enemies, became united. But besides this we should not forget that Henry II. was also descended through his grandmother, Matilda, the queen of Henry I., from the old West Saxon line of English kings. He was the first king since Edward the Confessor in whose veins flowed the blood of the old English kings.

2. Henry was one of the cleverest of English kings. He was a fierce, restless man, working very hard at the business of governing his dominions, and fond of trying new ways of ruling. He was terribly passionate, and raved like a madman when swayed by bursts of temper. But

Character of Henry II.

he was shrewd, prudent, and far-sighted, a great warrior, and a greater statesman.

3. Henry was already a powerful ruler when Stephen's death made him King Henry II. of England. From his mother Matilda he inherited Normandy, and from his father, Count Geoffrey, he had obtained Anjou and a rich territory in central France. He had

**Henry II.'s
continental
dominions**

largely increased his power by his marriage with *Eleanor of Aquitaine*, the heiress of the old line of the Dukes of Aquitaine, who ruled over a vast territory in southern France extending from the river Loire to the mountains of the Pyrenees. Moreover, a few years later Henry married one of his sons, Geoffrey, to the heiress of Brittany, and afterwards ruled over that country also as its lord. All this made Henry a much more important man in France than the French king himself. But his wide possessions also brought many troubles to him. Both his southern and northern French territories were filled with a nobility as greedy and as quarrelsome as were the Norman nobles in England during the evil days of Stephen. Moreover, Henry's French dominions constantly led him into difficulties with his overlord, the king of the French, who was very jealous of him. Yet he was strong enough to deal with all these troubles. When he had added England to his other dominions, he was as powerful as any king in Europe.

4. It was Henry II.'s first business in England to put an end to the disorders of Stephen's reign and restore law and peace. He pulled down most of the new castles which the barons had built without the king's leave during Stephen's reign, and took care that those

**The restoration of law
and order**

castles which remained should be garrisoned by men whom he could trust. Some of the barons tried to resist him, but they were easily subdued. In a very

Henry II. of Anjou

few years things were again much as they had been under Henry I. There was the same stern, hard rule, the same heavy taxes. But the mass of the people suffered these things willingly, as they knew that the



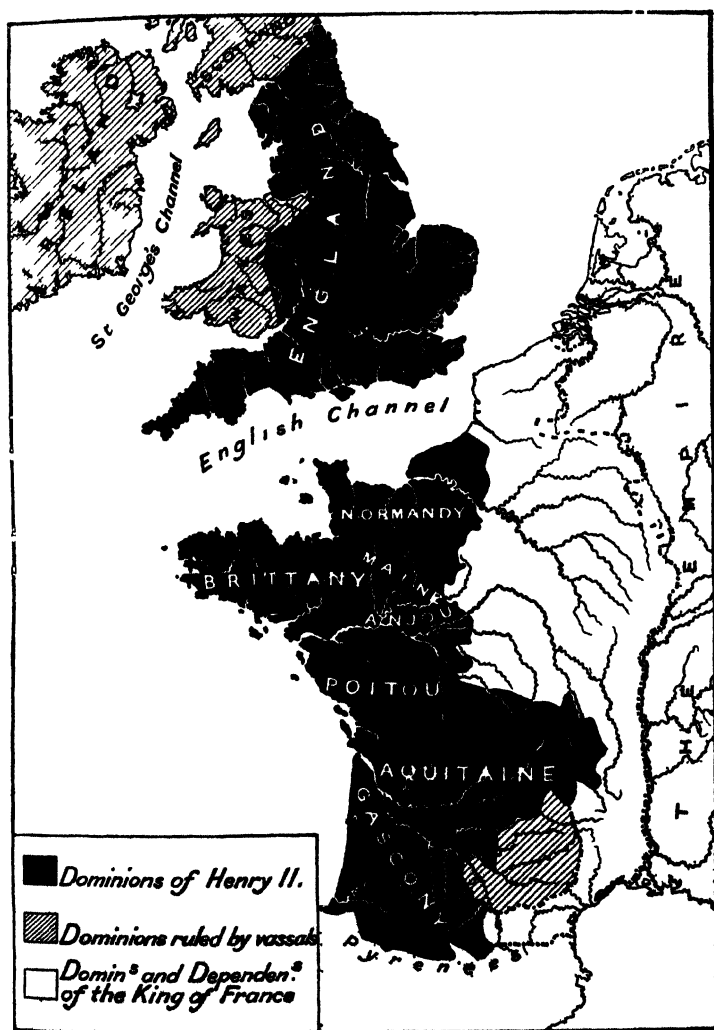
QUEEN ELEANOR OF AQUITAINI,
WIFE OF HENRY II.



HENRY II.

king alone could save them from the cruel tyrants of Stephen's days.

5. Henry II. was not long content with simply copying what his grandfather had done. He drew up a series of new laws called *Assizes*, in which he made many great reforms. By one of these, the *Assize of*



WALKER & COCHERELL DEL.

THE ANGEVIN EMPIRE

Clarendon (1166), he introduced a new method of trying persons accused of murder or other crimes. He

Henry II.'s reforms ordered his judges or *justices* to go from time to time to every county in the land, and to call together from each county a body of men able to tell them what persons had committed any crimes within that county. This body was

The Assize of Clarendon and Trial by Jury called a *jury*, that is, a body of sworn men, who got that name from the oath which they swore to tell the truth. The jurors as the members of the jury were

called, were chosen in the shire-moot, which still went on as it had done before the Norman Conquest. And by bringing the old English shire-moot into close touch with the new royal justices, Henry did a great deal to join together the ancient customs of the English with the new system brought in by the Norman kings. Moreover, Henry found juries so very convenient, that he employed them for many other purposes also. His habit of using them caused the system of *trial by jury*, which still goes on in England, to be established. To this day the king's judges still go round to every county to try prisoners as they did in the reign of Henry II., and they still use the jury system which Henry first made general.

6. Henry made another good law called the *Grand Assize*, which set up a jury to decide who was the

The Grand Assize rightful owner of a piece of land. Before his time, if a man claimed to be holder of a piece of land, his only way to get it was to challenge the actual possessor to fight him for the land. This was called *trial by battle*, and it was believed that God would give the victory to the man who had the best right. But men now lost their faith in this system. The trial by jury introduced by Henry was, therefore, welcomed as a great boon to the weak and feeble.

7. Another of Henry's laws was called the *Assize of Arms* (1181). By it the king ordered every freeman to provide himself with arms, so that he might serve the king in his wars. Thus not only the nobles who held land of the king, but all freemen, were called upon to fight for their country. Thus the old English *fyrð*, or popular militia, was revived. So little did Henry trust his nobles, that he was often glad to let them off their duty of fighting for him. Instead of personal service they paid him *scutage*, or shield money, with which he was able to hire anybody that he would to serve him as a soldier.

**The Assize
of Arms and
Scutage**

8. During Henry's long and peaceful reign the English and the Normans gradually became united with each other. We have seen how Henry's own grandmother was an English woman. Many of the nobles had also married English ladies, so that their descendants had English as well as Norman ancestors. Moreover, as the old noble families died out, new ones arose in their place which had nothing to do with Normandy, but were purely English by descent and property. Nevertheless the king's vast French dominions kept up close ties between England and the Continent. The king and his courtiers and nobles continued as a rule to talk French. But these French-speaking Englishmen soon became thoroughly English in feeling and were always very willing to fight the French kings. By Henry II.'s time nobody knew or cared who was of English and who was of Norman descent.

**The Normans
and English
become one
people**

9. In carrying out his early reforms Henry had been much helped by a young priest named *Thomas Becket*. He served as the king's chancellor—that is to say, as the keeper of his seal and secretary. When Henry had been king nearly ten years, he made Thomas Arch-

bishop of Canterbury. He hoped that in this great office his faithful minister would continue to look after the royal interests, and do the king's work as he had when he was chancellor. But Becket took a very serious view of his new office. He became very strict and austere, and was as stiff as Anselm himself in upholding all the rights and liberties of the Church. A very fierce quarrel broke out between Henry and Thomas in 1164, over the question of how clergymen who had broken the law should be tried. The Church had law courts of its own, and since the Norman Conquest the clergy were tried in these courts only. But the Church courts could not hang a man, and as the judges were always clergymen, they were inclined to be very merciful to brother-clergymen who had got into difficulties. Henry II. thought that the king ought to see that, at any rate, clergymen who committed murders and similar crimes were properly punished. He drew up a law called the *Constitutions of Clarendon*, in which he claimed certain powers over the Church. Thomas bitterly resisted the Constitutions, and the king drove the archbishop out of the country. Later the archbishop was allowed to return but he and the king began a new dispute. Henry became very angry and said, 'Will none of the cowards, who eat my bread rid me of this turbulent priest?' Four of the king's *knights*, or soldiers, took him at his word and hurried straight to Canterbury, and killed the archbishop. But the cowardly murderers had done the worst possible service to their king. Becket became revered as a martyr, and the Pope solemnly declared him to be a saint. His tomb or *shrine* at Canterbury became the most famous place of pilgrimage in England, and all went ill with Henry until he himself went on pilgrimage to St. Thomas's shrine, where he was scourged with rods

**Quarrel of
Henry and
Becket**

**Henry's
relations
with the
Church**

as a sign of his penitence. Moreover, the cause that Becket had fought for was now so strong that Henry had to yield to it. From this time until the Reformation the clergyman who committed a crime was handed over to the courts of the Church, and as a consequence rarely got the punishment that his misdeeds deserved.

10. Henry II. was the first king to have real authority over all parts of the British islands. Soon after the Conquest the Normans began to swarm over the English borders into Wales, which was ruled by so many petty princes that it could not unite to resist them.

**Henry II. as
Lord of the
British
Islands**

There the Normans set up a large number of little states, especially in southern and eastern Wales. Only in the mountains of Snowdon did the

Wales

Welsh princes hold their own. Moreover, the marriage of Henry I. and the Scots king's daughter brought about a friendly feeling between the English and Scottish courts. The Normans were welcomed cordially in the north, and, before long, many of the greatest Scottish nobles were

Scotland

Normans. Through them feudal laws were brought into Scotland, and close relations between the two realms established. One result of this was that several kings of Scots did homage to the English King.

11. In Henry II.'s time Norman adventurers passed over into Ireland, and did there over again what they had already accomplished in Wales. They

found Ireland ruled by a multitude of petty kings, and heads of *clans* or tribes, who were always quarrelling with each

**The Norman
Conquest of
Ireland**

other. They took sides in these disputes and soon began to drive away the Irish princes from power and set up little feudal states. Most of the richer parts of Ireland were thus conquered by Norman barons. The Irish chieftains were driven from the plains to rule among the mountains and moors, whence they con-

stantly made war against the foreign intruders. At last the Normans were so hard pressed that they called upon Henry to help them against the native Irish. In 1171, after Becket's murder, Henry himself went to Ireland, and found no one bold enough to resist him openly. He was easily acknowledged as its lord by Norman barons and Celtic clan leaders alike. But the submission of the Irish lords was in little more than in name. Henceforward the English kings were called *Lords of Ireland*, though Ireland really remained unconquered for many hundred years more. During all that time its history is made up of constant petty wars between the Norman barons and Celtic chieftains among whom the island was divided.

12. Henry's last years were full of trouble. He was a kind father, but his sons were disobedient and rebellious. They joined the French king, the revolted nobles, and any other enemies that their father happened to have. Their ingratitude made the king's old age very wretched. His eldest son, *Henry*, died a rebel, but full of repentance for his misdeeds. The next, *Richard*, was ever turbulent and restless. The third, *Geoffrey*, the same who had won by marriage the duchy of Brittany, died before his father. Last of all, *John*, Henry's youngest and best beloved son, joined the rebels. On hearing this news, Henry gave up all hope and in 1189 fell ill and died.

**Henry's
family
troubles and
death**

QUESTIONS

1. What claim had Henry II. to the throne? How was he connected with the West Saxon kings? Draw a sketch map and mark thereon the Dominions of Henry II.
2. How did Henry II. put down the power of the barons? Write a few lines about each of his reforms.
3. Who was Thomas Becket? What led to the quarrel between him and Henry II.? How did the quarrel end?
4. Tell how Henry II. brought Wales, Ireland and Scotland under his control.

CHAPTER IX

Richard I., the Lion Heart, 1189-1199

(Married Berengaria of Navarre)

Principal Dates :

- 1189. Accession of Richard I.; the Third Crusade.
- 1194. Richard's second visit to England.
- 1199. Death of Richard I.

1. Richard I. was a fine, tall, strong man, with a fair complexion and bright yellow hair. He was a mighty warrior, and his bravery won for him the nickname of Lion Heart. He had plenty of energy, and though not so clever as his father, was shrewd and far-seeing. Though often more generous and unselfish than Henry II. in little things, he was in great matters a much worse king than his father. While Henry strove to make his kingdom better governed and more prosperous, Richard chiefly thought about winning glory for himself.

**Character of
Richard I.**

2. Brought up among the fierce nobles of his mother's land of Aquitaine, Richard knew and cared little about his island kingdom. He only twice visited England during his reign of ten years. On each occasion he came to get as much money as he could, and as soon as he had filled his pockets he hurried away again. But Richard was shrewd enough to leave England to itself. All through his reign *Justiciars* or prime ministers, trained up in Henry II.'s court, ruled England in the name of the absent king. So long as they sent him plenty of money, Richard gave them a free

**England
under
Richard I.'s
rule**

hand. The result showed what a great and permanent work had been accomplished by Henry II. Before this time a neglectful and absent king would have plunged all England into trouble and confusion. But there was now such a good system of governing



QUEEN BERENGARIA.



RICHARD I.

the country that the ministers of the king were able to rule the land as strictly and sternly as any king could have done. Even without the monarch, Henry II.'s system went on, so to say, by itself. Some men tried to take advantage of the king's absence to gain power for themselves, but the king's justiciars were able to

put down all rebellions and keep the country in peace. Their worst trouble was with the king's younger brother, John, who rebelled against Richard and did his best to stir up confusion. But John was quickly rendered powerless, and Richard generously forgave him.

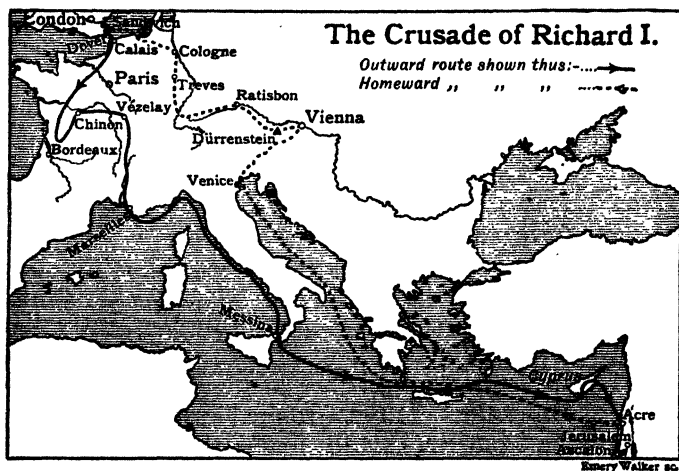
3. At the moment when Richard came to the throne all Europe was roused to arms by the preaching of what was called a *Crusade*. A Crusade was a holy war fought against the enemies of the Christian faith. It was so called because those who took part in it, the Crusaders, wore a cross sewn on their outer garment as a sign that they had undertaken the holy work. The *First Crusade* had been proclaimed in 1095 in the reign of William Rufus. Christians had long been shocked that Jerusalem and the other holy places in Palestine, where Christ had lived and suffered, were in the hands of the Mohammedans, the great enemies of the Christian faith in the East. Things got worse when the Turks became lords of Jerusalem somewhere about the time of the Norman Conquest. It was the fashion of those days for men to go on *pilgrimages* or pious journeys to Bethlehem, where Christ was born, and to Jerusalem, where His sepulchre or burial-place was still shown. But the Turks robbed and maltreated the Christian pilgrims, and made their presence in Palestine almost impossible. This roused up great indignation all over Europe, and led warriors of every land to band themselves together to drive the unbeliever out of Palestine and restore Christian rule there. Thus was the First Crusade started, which succeeded so well that it expelled the Turks from Palestine and set up a Christian kingdom of Jerusalem. Duke Robert of Normandy, the Conqueror's eldest son, was one of the heroes of the First Crusade.

4. The kingdom of Jerusalem did not flourish very

long, though another Crusade, called the *Second Crusade*, was sent after about fifty years, to strengthen it. At last a very brave and generous Sultan of Egypt and Syria, named *Saladin*, revived the Mohammedan power and drove the Christians out of Jerusalem. There was a great cry of horror all over Europe when it was learned that the holy city was once more in the hands of the infidel. A new

The Third Crusade

Crusade, the *Third Crusade*, was proclaimed by the Pope in order to win back Jerusalem for the Cross. Richard himself was eager to play a



prominent part in it. After raising as much money as he could in his brief visit to England, he sailed for the East at the head of a gallant army. Every Christian nation was represented in the crusading host. Among the leaders was *Philip Augustus*, the king of France, the old ally of Richard in the days when both fought against Henry II.

5. Richard won several battles over Saladin. He

performed wonderful feats of valour, fighting fierce hand-to-hand fights, and marching great distances through the burning sands of Syria, clad in the heavy steel armour of the western knight. His successes gave the Christian kingdom in Palestine another hundred years of life. But with all his courage and skill he could not conquer Jerusalem. Though he came within sight of its walls, he resolutely turned away his face from the holy city, saying that if he were not able to enter its gates as conqueror, he was not worthy to cast his eyes upon it. However, he made a truce with Saladin by which Christian pilgrims were allowed to go to Jerusalem, and took ship for home.

**Richard I.
and the
Third
Crusade**

6. The disputes of the Crusaders had done much to damage the crusading cause. Philip of France quarrelled fiercely with Richard and hurried back to France, where, in secret alliance with John, he plundered and invaded Richard's continental dominions. The ill-will of the French king now prevented Richard from going home by the most direct way through France, so he sailed up the Adriatic and thence crossed over the Alps to Germany. He was soon, however, stopped and shut up in prison by a German nobleman who had quarrelled with him in Palestine, and who handed him over to the Emperor *Henry VI.* Henry kept Richard in prison until an enormous sum of money was raised in England and paid over as the king's ransom. Then Richard was set free, and after more than five years' absence again appeared in England in 1194.

**Richard's
captivity in
Germany**

7. Richard was full of wrath with the French king, and resolved to make Philip suffer for his treacherous conduct. After raising as much money as he could he crossed over to France, and never came back to England. He spent the rest of his life in fighting

the French king, but he gained no very great successes against him. At last he met his end in a petty quarrel with one of his own vassals, and was slain by an arrow shot from the castle wall. **Richard's wars against France, and death** He was not a good king, but his brother and successor reigned so badly that men soon had cause to mourn for Richard the Lion Heart.

QUESTIONS

1. How was Richard I. different from his father? Why was he away from England during the most part of his reign? Who governed the country during his absence?
2. What were the Crusades? Why were they so called? Tell what you know of the First Crusade.
3. Who was Saladin? Write a few sentences about the part that was played by Richard I. in the Third Crusade. Tell how he got into trouble and how he was rescued.

CHAPTER X

John Lackland, 1199-1216

(Married Isabella of Angoulême)

Principal Dates :

- 1199. Accession of John.
- 1204. Loss of Normandy.
- 1213. John becomes the Pope's vassal.
- 1215. Magna Carta granted.
- 1216. Invasion of Louis of France, and death of John.

1. The nearest heir to Richard I. was *Arthur of Brittany*, son of Geoffrey, the third son of Henry II. But Arthur was a boy, and the barons preferred to be ruled by a grown man. Accordingly Henry II.'s youngest son, John, became king. He was as wicked a man as William Rufus, as cruel and as cunning. But he was a far worse ruler than the strong and capable Red King. He was cowardly, lazy, and fickle. He thought little of the real interest even of the crown, as compared with the indulgence of the whim of the moment. For his people he cared nothing at all. His self-will and pride broke down that mighty Angevin Empire that had outlived even the neglect of his brother. His short reign is nothing but a catalogue of disasters. He lost Normandy and Anjou. He submitted humbly to the will of the Pope. He ruled so brutally that his subjects were forced to unite against him, and when he was cut off by death he had all but lost his throne.

**Accession
and char-
acter of
John**

2. In the early years of his reign, John ruled, like Richard and Henry II., over all western France. His nephew, Arthur, was a more dangerous rival in France than in England. So John soon shut him up in a castle and before long had him put to death.

**The loss of
Normandy
and Anjou**

But other enemies arose to revenge Arthur. John had treated his French subjects so badly that they complained of his acts to Philip of France, his overlord. Philip had been John's closest friend, but he now became his bitter enemy. He punished John for his cruel deeds by depriving him of his lands in France. In 1204 a French army overran Normandy. John did nothing to defend the inheritance of his ancestors, which Philip now annexed to France. Anjou, the cradle of his house, was conquered by Philip with equal ease. Before the end of the reign nothing remained of the Angevin dominions in France save *Gascony*, the southern part of Queen Eleanor's Aquitanian inheritance.

3. The loss of his continental dominions, though very discreditable to John, was in the long run a gain to England. As long as the Norman nobles continued to hold estates in France as well as in England, they could not easily become good Englishmen. But Philip's conquest of Normandy and Anjou forced them to decide between abandoning their French or their English lands, since they could not serve both King John and

**Result of
their loss**



KING JOHN

King Philip. Those who preferred to remain in England were henceforth cut off from the Continent. Though they long continued to follow French ways and talk the French tongue, they soon showed that they were as true Englishmen as those who had sprung from Anglo-Saxon ancestors. Thus the loss of Normandy completed that mixing together of Normans and English which, as we have seen, had already made great progress in the days of Henry II.

4. John now plunged into a quarrel with the Church. In 1205 the Archbishop of Canterbury died, and there was a dispute as to who should be his successor. According to Church law, the *chapter* of the cathedral, that is, the body of clergy serving in Christ Church, Canterbury, had the right to elect the archbishop. Now, the chapter

**Struggle
with the
Church :
Disputed
election of
Canterbury**

of Canterbury, like that of many other English cathedrals since Dunstan's time, consisted of a number of monks, whose head was called the prior. It had long been felt that it was not wise to permit the monks of Canterbury to choose freely the head of the whole English Church. The result of this feeling was that the king had always had a large share in deciding to whom the great office was to fall. But John could not agree with the monks of Christ Church on this occasion, and both the king and the monks did their best to get the man of their choice made archbishop.

5. In such cases of dispute there was a final appeal to the Pope's court at Rome. Now the Pope in John's days was *Innocent III.* one of the strongest, wisest, best and most self-willed of the Popes. When the case came before him, Innocent set aside the choice both of the king and of the monks. He persuaded some of the monks who had been sent to Rome to elect as their archbishop *Stephen Langton*, a very wise, learned,

**John's
quarrel with
Innocent III.**

and high-minded Englishman, then living at Rome, as a *cardinal* of the Roman Church. Langton, the Pope's nominee, was a much better man for the post than either the candidate of the king or that of the monks. But the Pope was over-eager to increase the power of the Church, and kings were becoming afraid of the fresh claims, which the Roman Church was constantly making, to exercise jurisdiction within their kingdoms. There was nothing strange therefore in John refusing to accept the Pope's choice. But John was not influenced by high reasons of state, such as had inspired Henry I. to resist Anselm, and Henry II. to oppose Becket. He wanted to give the archbishopric to one of his unworthy servants, and feared, like Rufus in the case of Anselm, the advice and counsel of so good a man as Langton. Neither John nor the Pope gave way, and a fierce conflict broke out between them.

6. After the contest had lasted some years, Innocent proclaimed what was called an *Interdict* over all England. It was one of the severest punishments which the Church could impose upon a country. By it all public worship was forbidden. The churches and churchyards were shut up. No bell was tolled. The dead were buried without prayer or praise. The sacraments were refused except to the dying and to the new-born child, and even in these cases were administered with as little pomp as was possible. It seemed as if God's favour were withdrawn from the land under interdict, and in that age of faith the loss of all the consolations of the Church was as grievous a thing as could be. But though the English groaned under their sorrow, the godless John was quite careless about the interdict. He exerted himself, however, to drive from the country such priests and bishops as obeyed the Pope's orders. He showed high favour to those clergy who ignored the interdict and went on with their services as before.

The Interdict

7. A year passed by and John still refused to yield. At last in 1209 Innocent declared John *excommunicate*, that is, cut off from all the services and sacraments of the Church. In those days the man excommunicated was shunned by his fellows as an unclean person. But John laughed at excommunication as he had done at the interdict. Finally, Innocent declared that John had forfeited his throne for disobeying the Church, and called on Philip of France to invade England and carry out the sentence of the Roman court. Philip was already the close ally of the Pope, and was delighted to get a good excuse for conquering his rival's dominions. He prepared to execute Innocent's judgment, and the friends of the Pope in England were likely to welcome him as a deliverer.

**Excom-
munication
of John**

8. Seeing that he could no longer safely oppose the Pope, John gave up the struggle. He agreed to accept Langton as Archbishop of Canterbury, but Innocent required a more complete submission. In despair, John yielded to Innocent's demands. In 1213, at Dover, he surrendered his crown and kingdom to *Pandulf*, the Pope's envoy. He received them back only when he had promised to be the Pope's vassal. He took the feudal oaths of homage and fidelity to Innocent as to his overlord, and agreed to pay a tribute of a thousand marks a year to the Roman see. By this surrender John gave the Pope political as well as ecclesiastical rights over England. The land, which its kings had hitherto ruled without a master, was henceforth to depend upon the Pope in the same way that Gascony depended on France, or Wales on England. But John cared nothing for the disgrace of his surrender. He was quite satisfied to have avoided the French invasion, and was glad henceforth to have the Pope on his side.

**John be-
comes the
Pope's
vassal**

into the country who infused a new spirit into the English and united the country in a way in which it had never been knit together before. English and

**Importance
of the Nor-
man Con-
quest**

Normans intermarried and soon became one people, and this new England was a stronger state than before. It was linked closely to the continent, and thus brought more closely into touch with Italy, and with the new movements which were soon to change society. But the Normans did not conquer the Celtic fringe as they had done the English lands. For long Wales, Scotland, and Ireland remained borderlands, where Norman influence was only spreading gradually. This had an important result all through English history.

13. The Normans in England founded for the first time an effective centralised despotism under the king.

**The King
and the
Great
Council**

The Norman king acted in a two-fold capacity. He was the successor of the old Saxon monarchs, as king of the English, and he was also feudal overlord of his vassals. The old Witan of wise men was succeeded by the Great Council of the Norman kings. During the twelfth century it was composed of all the tenants in chief of the crown, though in practice only the more important vassals were in the habit of attending it. The Council met generally at the great feasts, and had much the same powers as the old Witan. From it by a long series of changes has gradually grown up the parliament of today. The king's chief ministers were the Justiciar, who acted as his regent when the king was absent from the kingdom, the Chancellor, who was always a bishop and acted as a sort of secretary, and the Treasurer who controlled the finances. The ordinary work of government was done by members of the king's household, and by the special courts which he appointed. The old local courts of the shire and hundred still went on, though the feudal courts of the

great landlords encroached on the hundred courts at times. The system of sending justices on circuit through the country, and the jury system introduced by Henry II. helped the central government to keep in touch with local affairs.

14. The vast majority of Englishmen lived in the country, and gained their livelihood by agriculture. The chief wealth consisted in land, and the great nobles owed their importance to their being large possessors of landed estate. There were also a large number of gentlemen who held smaller estates, and are often spoken of as *knight*s. Properly a knight was a fully armed and mounted soldier, who had been solemnly admitted to the use of arms by his older and tried comrades. The greatest kings and nobles were proud to be dubbed knights by some famous warrior. But every landholder of a fair-sized estate might be compelled by the king to become a knight, so that the word *knight* often meant simply a smaller landlord.

**The nobles
and knights**

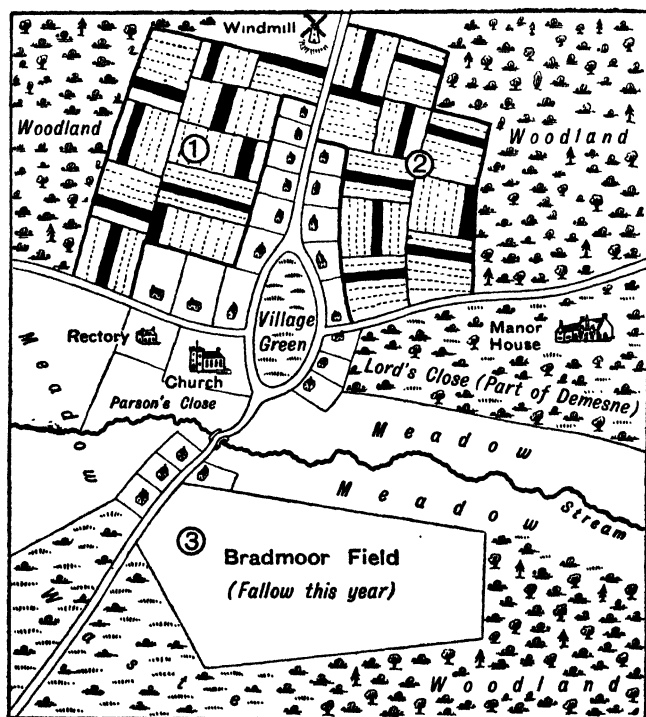
15. The estates of the nobles and gentry were divided into *manors*, which were all very much of the same type. Each manor had its *lord*, who controlled all the land and exercised jurisdiction in his *manorial court* over his tenants. If the lord were a great man, he probably held many manors scattered all over England, so that he could seldom visit each one of them, but appointed a *Steward* to act as his representative. In any case, there was a bailiff, who looked after the details of cultivation and management. There was probably a *hall*, where the lord could reside with his followers. The land was divided into two parts. First there was the *demesne*, or home-farm of the lord, which was cultivated by his bailiff for him. Then there were the little patches of land held by the villagers, many of whom were *villeins*, or serfs, who were compelled

**The manor.
Life in the
country**

to live on their farms and work on their lord's demesne for a stated number of days.

16. There was much less variety than there is nowadays in the cultivation of the soil. The earth was ploughed by heavy ploughs, drawn by oxen. In the ploughed lands there was a regular succession of crops of corn, and then the soil lay *fallow*, or uncultivated, for a year

**Manorial
agriculture**



Black strips are John Small's holding in the two cultivated fields.

1 Millbank Field (Barley this year) 2 Longmoor Field (Wheat this year)

3 Bradmoor Field (Fallow this year)

to recover its fertility. The farms of the tenants were not, as they would be now, all grouped together, but

they were scattered in long narrow strips all over the manor. The corn lands were fenced only during spring and summer, and after harvest the fences were thrown down, and any tenant could pasture his cattle or his sheep upon them. There was also a large extent of *common*, or rough permanent pasture, upon which any member of the manor could turn his beasts to feed. The object of the farmer was to raise enough corn and meat to keep himself and his household during the winter. Very little produce was sent to market, and there was very little intercourse between one district and another. Money was seldom used, and even the great nobles did not possess much of it.

17. The king and the nobles, who held many manors, lived a curiously wandering life, moving with all their attendants from one manor to another.

When they had eaten up the produce of one estate, they went on to the next, for it was easier in those days for men to move

**Wandering
life of the
king and
nobles**

about than it was for produce to be carried for long distances. One result of this was that even rich men lived very uncomfortable lives. They changed their abode so often that it was never worth while to collect much furniture or make their houses really comfortable. They had plenty to eat and drink, and plenty of rough, warm clothes. But they slept together in one great room in which they lived and ate. There was therefore much dirt and overcrowding.

18. What little trade there was, centred in the towns, which received an immense impulse after the Norman Conquest. After the Conquest the court made Westminster its chief centre. One result of this

The towns

was that London, already the most important town, became the recognised capital of the country. It received many privileges by grant or charter from the kings, and finally obtained the right of choosing its own *mayor* or head. The Londoners

took an active part in politics, and were very rich and influential. There was no town that approached London in wealth, trade, or number of inhabitants. The greater country towns were contented to obtain from the king charters which extended to them the liberties already granted to the Londoners. Social and religious clubs called Gilds were common in England, all through the Middle Ages, and during the twelfth century most towns had a flourishing Gild Merchant. This was a club to which belonged all citizens who had the right of trade, both wholesale and retail, in the town. It was ruled by an elected head often called an alderman, with assistants. It regulated very minutely the method of making goods, the wages which might be paid, the method of selling, and so forth. All these gilds had a religious side, and also organised social functions. In some towns there were quarrels between the gild and the town government. All the towns at this time were small, and had fields lying nearby in which the townspeople pastured their pigs and grew their corn, for townsmen were farmers too at this time.

Thus the townsmen were not very keen or enterprising traders. Foreign trade was almost entirely in the hands of Italians and Germans, and money-lending was the special business of the Jews, who thrived by it so much that they were the first private people to build stone houses to live in. However their religion and their usury made the Jews so unpopular, that at last in 1290 Edward I. drove them out of the country.

19. The finest buildings were the castles, churches and monasteries. The Norman castle was, as we have seen, a solid square tower of stone, supported by out-works. Later on the tower became round instead of square. During the eleventh and twelfth centuries, these Norman castles were to be seen everywhere throughout the countryside.

Castles

Church-building developed like castle-building. The

old Norman fashion of building began to die out about Henry II.'s time, and in its stead arose the Gothic style, brought in from France.

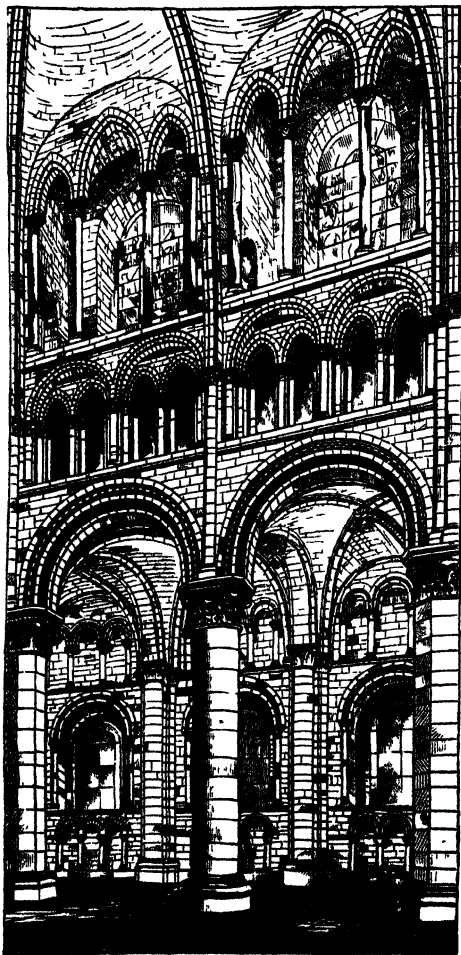
Churches

But there was no sudden change from the old to the newer style. Gothic grew gradually out of the older Norman; and we can see, especially in buildings of Henry II.'s time, how the one style faded into the other. A good instance of this transition is to be seen in the choir or eastern part of Canterbury Cathedral, built by a French architect soon after the murder of Thomas Becket. This is nearly Gothic, but we see that the great arches are still round, after the earlier Norman fashion, though the highest tier of arches is pointed.

Early Gothic architecture

20. Dress changed very slowly, though it became richer and more luxurious as time went on. Gentlemen wore long gowns, falling below the knee, so that men and women did not look very different from each other. Rich stuffs, bright colours, fur and jewels, were worn by the wealthy of both sexes alike. Fur was very necessary in winter time, since fuel was scarce, and thick garments were the chief means of keeping out the cold. There was a great difference between the simple garments of the poor and the fine clothes of the nobles and gentry. In war-time soldiers' armour became much more elaborate. Armour for the body was rarely worn except by kings and leaders, before the invasions of the Danes and Normans. These brought in the *hauberk*, or tunic of *chain-mail*, in which the whole garment consisted of small rings of steel or iron, linked closely together. During the twelfth century the hauberk was supplemented by other trappings which enabled the wearer better to ward off attack. The helmet, hitherto open, save for a *nasal* protecting the nose, became an elaborate structure, closed by a grating, or *visor*, with holes for eyes and mouth. Under the helmet was worn a

Dress and Armour



PART OF THE CHOIR OF CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL
(In building from 1175-1184)

skull cap of steel, covered by a hood of mail, shielding the whole head and neck. Horses as well as men were now protected by armour. Over the coat of mail the knight now wore a surcoat, on which, or on his shield, was painted or embroidered his arms or device. Every knight had his personal or family badge, and a special science called Heraldry grew up, which explained the differences between the arms of the various knightly and baronial families.

21. As we have seen the Norman Conquest led to a great development of monasteries in England. At first all these houses followed the usual rule of St. Benedict. In the twelfth century new types of monastic life were brought over to England from the continent. Most

**The Church
and the
Universities**

important of these were the Cistercians, who tried to get back to a simplicity of life by very strict vows and determined to avoid the danger of wealth by extreme simplicity in their buildings. They sought out especially the wild and desolate valleys of Yorkshire for the monasteries. After a time the Cistercians gradually became even more wealthy than other monasteries, and the houses were built in the most beautiful manner. They became famous too, as sheep farmers, and much of their wealth came from the wool trade. Another movement which reached England at this time from the continent was the development of organised learning which formed the seed of the Universities. During the twelfth century there was an outbreak of new thought, called the *Twelfth Century Renaissance*. One sign of this was the growth of Universities which have ever since had such an important influence on the spread and advance of knowledge. The universities were corporations or guilds of teachers or learners, which received from kings and popes special privileges that made them very powerful. The earliest universities were abroad, and the most celebrated one in northern

Europe was at Paris. However, in Henry II.'s time, an English university grew up at Oxford. A second English university soon arose at Cambridge though this did not acquire the reputation of Oxford until the beginning of the Tudor period. The chief studies of the universities were Philosophy, Theology, Law and Medicine. The lectures were all given in Latin, which was still the everyday language of scholars. Students went freely all over Europe from one university to another, and thus became acquainted with lands other than their own. They were of all ranks of life, and many scholars were very poor. But the universities enabled the poorest men to rise by their learning to the highest stations of life. A poor scholar might become an archbishop, cardinal, or pope. The Church was in those days the only learned profession, and all scholars had the privileges of the clergy.

QUESTIONS

1. What do you know about the character of King John? What led to the loss of Normandy and Anjou? How did England benefit by the loss of the French possessions?
2. Tell in a few lines what you know about the dispute between John and the Church. Who was Stephen Langton? What office did he hold? What is meant by an Interdict? How did England suffer when the country was placed under an Interdict? How did the quarrel between John and Innocent III. come to an end?
3. Why did John and the barons quarrel? Under what circumstances was the Magna Carta signed? Mention the important clauses of the Charter. Tell how the Norman Conquest was of importance to England.
4. Tell what you know of Feudal Britain under the following heads:—
 - (a) The great Council.
 - (b) Manor life.
 - (c) Towns and town life.
 - (d) Church.
 - (e) Learning.

BOOK III

THE LATER PLANTAGENETS, 1216-1399

CHAPTER XI

Henry III. of Winchester, 1216-1272

(Married Eleanor of Provence)

Principal Dates :

- 1216. Accession of Henry III.
- 1217. Battle of Lincoln.
- 1232. Fall of Hubert de Burgh.
- 1258. Provisions of Oxford.
- 1264. Battle of Lewes.
- 1265. Montfort's Parliament and Battle of Evesham.
- 1272. Death of Henry III.

1. John's eldest son was only nine years old at his father's death; but his friends at once crowned him King Henry III. The barons, who had called in Louis of France, refused to recognise the little king, and the civil war went on for some time longer. But the innocent boy-king had not shared in the crimes of his father. His friends showed that they had little sympathy with John's policy. They issued the great Charter once more as the free-will grant of the new monarch. This wise act took away any good reason for opposing Henry's rule. The barons had called in Louis to uphold the Charter against John, and now John's son himself was on the side of the Charter. So all the best men in England gradually went over to Henry's

**The
expulsion
of Louis of
France**

side. Among his chief supporters was Archbishop Stephen Langton. The Pope's *legate* or representative in England was also strongly for the little king. The Pope himself had now given up his objections to the Great Charter. In 1217 Louis was beaten at the *Battle of Lincoln*, and soon after he left England. Good ministers, first William Marshall, and then the Justiciar, Hubert de Burgh, governed England until 1232. They drove out the greedy foreigners, who were the chief supporters of John, and forced them to give up their lands and castles.

2. Henry III. was pious and gentle, a good husband and father and a faithful friend. He was the first king after the Conquest who revered English saints, and the first who called his children by English names, such as Edward and Edmund, instead of the French names, like William, Henry, and Richard, that had so long been exclusively used. He loved to build fair churches after the new pointed or *Gothic* style, which had just come over from France into England, and was now used instead of the heavier round-arched Norman fashion of building. He was a great admirer of Edward the Confessor, after whom he named

**Character
and policy of
Henry III.**

his eldest son, and in whose honour he began to rebuild Westminster Abbey, pulling down the noble church which Edward himself had set up, and putting in its place the Westminster Abbey which still exists.



HENRY III.

3. Henry was a weak king, and yet too jealous to let his ministers govern freely in his name. When he grew up he drove away from power the faithful Hubert de Burgh, and trusted too much to foreign favourites, who knew nothing of England and English ways. He gave great posts in England to the uncles and other kinsfolk of his wife, *Eleanor of Provence*. Nobly-born adventurers flocked from abroad to the court of the good-natured, lavish English king. Among these was a clever young Frenchman, *Simon de Montfort*, who married Henry's sister Eleanor, and was recognised as the Earl of Leicester.

**Henry III.'s
foreign
favourites**

4. Neither Henry nor his foreign friends knew how to govern England. The promises made that the king would rule according to the Great Charter were not kept. Time after time the barons joined together and forced Henry to renew his pledges. The king was always willing to do this, especially if he could get money by it, but he was too feeble to know how to keep his word. The consequence was that the barons gradually became very angry with him. They were no longer, like their forefathers, content to let the king govern England for them. During Henry's childhood they had practically ruled England themselves, and they were not disposed to let the foreigners take their places as the king's advisers. They saw that the country was badly governed. The king collected plenty of taxes, but he wasted his revenues on his foreign friends, and did not keep good order. Moreover, being a great friend of the Pope's, he allowed the Pope's legates and agents to extort money from the English clergy and laity and send it to Rome. It now became a common custom for the Popes to appoint foreigners to English bishoprics and other high posts in the Church. And many of these foreigners cared nothing for their English flocks,

**Henry III.'s
misrule**

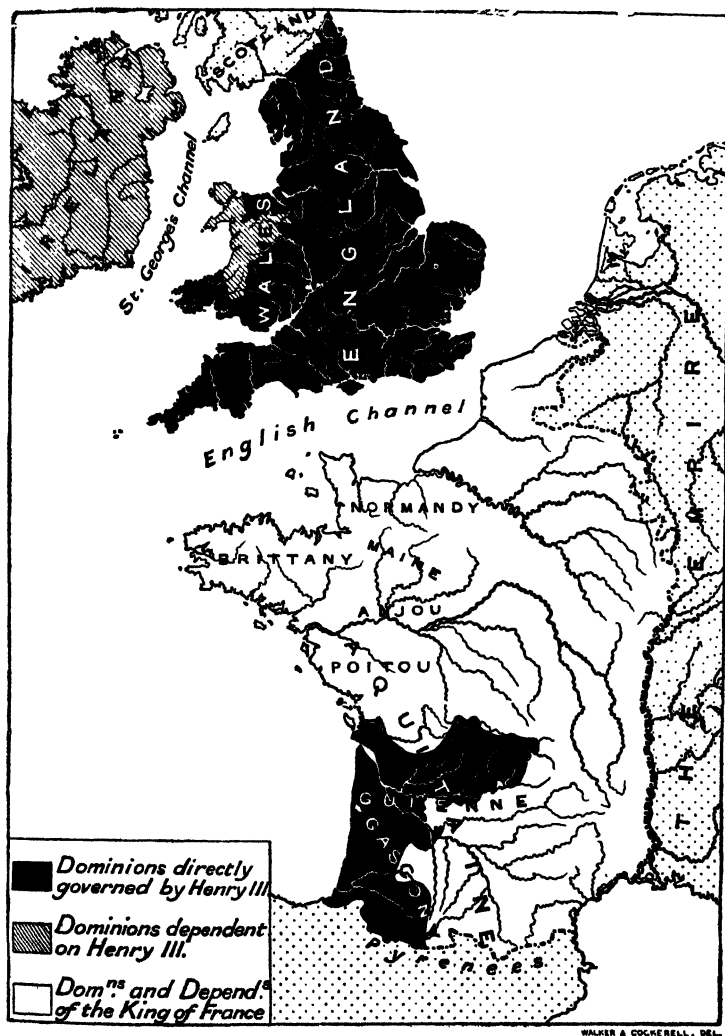
but looked upon their position as giving them large revenues without requiring any corresponding work from them.

5. There was much grumbling against Henry and the foreigners, and many councils of barons were held to discuss what was to be done. These councils, which in Norman times had taken the place of the old English *Wite-nagemot*, were now beginning to be called *Parliaments*, that is, meetings for talking and discussion. But the Parliament of these days did not represent the whole people. Like the ancient *Wite-nagemot* or the modern House of Lords, it consisted only of the great men—the earls and barons, the heads of the laity, and the bishops and abbots, the chiefs of the clergy. During Henry's minority these councils had grown accustomed to exercise power; and the Great Charter had said that the king could raise no new taxes without their consent. Henry's constant demands for money gave the baronial Parliament its chance, and in Simon of Montfort, the king's brother-in-law, it found a capable leader.

6. Earl Simon had come to England as a foreigner to seek his fortune, and his marriage closely connected him with the king. But he was so much wiser than Henry that he soon grew disgusted with his brother-in-law's foolish ways and quarrelled with him. Simon was an ambitious, hot-tempered, violent man, but he loved the people, and soon proved a better patriot than the English-born barons themselves. Under his lead a Parliament met at Oxford in 1258, which the king's friends called the *Mad Parliament*. But the barons of this Parliament knew very well what they were about. They drew up a new system of government called the *Provisions of Oxford*. By these laws all the foreigners were banished from England, and

**Growth of
baronial
opposition**

**The Pro-
visions of
Oxford**



THE ENGLISH DOMINIONS IN 1259

the government taken away from the king and given to a committee of fifteen barons.

7. Henry was forced to submit, and for some years the *Fifteen* ruled in his name. But they governed in such a selfish way that people began to complain. Simon did what he could, but some of the nobles grew jealous of his bold and overbearing policy. The result was a division among the barons that gave Henry a chance of winning back power. The king himself was not clever enough to make the most of his opportunities, but his eldest son, the Lord Edward, was now a grown man, and did much to make up for his father's weakness. At last open hostilities broke out between the king and the barons. These were called the *Barons' Wars*. The king was not yet able to wage war successfully. The barons now united again, and Montfort proved to be as good a general as he had been a statesman. In 1264 he won a complete victory over the king and his son at *Lewes* in Sussex. Henry and Edward were both taken prisoners, and the government of England again fell to the barons.

8. Montfort was now in a much better position than in the early years of the struggle. His plan had long been to take the people into partnership with him, and he was at length able to carry out his wishes. In 1265 he summoned a Parliament, which, unlike the Parliament of 1258, was no mere council of barons. Along with the barons and bishops he called upon every shire, city, and borough to send two representatives to join with the nobles and prelates. This action of his has made the Parliament of 1265 very famous. It has been called the *first House of Commons*, and Montfort has been named the *creator of the House of Commons*. But Montfort's policy here was not altogether a sudden change. For fifty years it had

The Barons' Wars

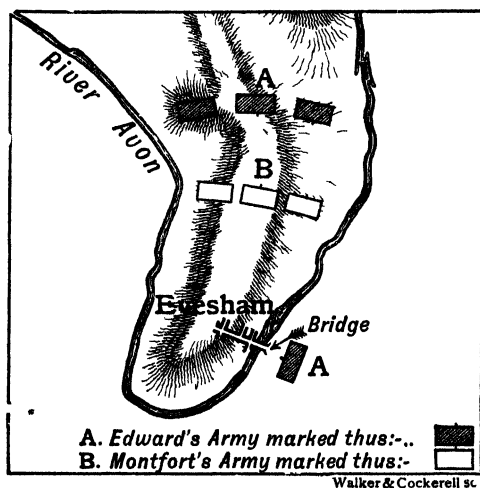
The Parliament of 1265

been the custom for the king to call together representatives of the shire, or, as they were called, *knights of the shire*, and to take their advice or listen to their complaints. And when the king had wanted to get advice on trading matters, he had already more than once summoned in the same way representatives of the different cities and boroughs. The new thing now was that Montfort joined both the shire and the borough representatives in a single gathering. Moreover, he did not call upon this council to deal with the small matters. He tried to find out from it what the people at large really thought as to how the government of the country should be carried on. The result was that, ever since this period, the Commons as well as the Lords had something to say in all high questions of State. As Magna Carta had declared, the king's power was to be limited. It was, however, to be limited, not only by the barons and bishops, but by the lesser landholders, the men of business, and the smaller people as well.

9. Earl Simon's rule did not last very long. With all his greatness he was so fierce and overbearing that it was hard for any one to work very long with him. Before 1265 was over he was again quarrelling with many of the barons, and these disputes gave the king and his son another chance. Edward escaped from prison and joined the lords who were discontented with Montfort. Before long they had raised a large number of soldiers, and caught Earl Simon with his army at *Evesham* on the Avon. This town is situated on a peninsula formed by a loop of the river. Edward, with the main body of his troops, cleverly took possession of the isthmus, while another part of his army broke down the bridge which joined Evesham to the other bank. Montfort saw that his retreat was cut off. 'Commend your souls to God,' he cried to his soldiers, 'for our

**The Battle
of Evesham**

bodies are the Lord Edward's.' The strife then began, and Montfort's troops, though fighting bravely, were soon overpowered. Montfort himself died on the field of battle. The poor worshipped him as a saint and a martyr, for they felt sure that he had loved them, and had done his best for them.



THE BATTLE OF EVESHAM

10. Edward now restored his father to liberty and the throne. The rest of the old king's reign was as peaceful as the middle part of it had been stormy. But Edward was now the real ruler of England, and he was wise enough to govern more according to the ideas of Earl Simon than according to the former fashion of his father. Before long things got so quiet that Edward was able to leave England and go on a crusade against the Mohammedans. He was still

**The triumph
of Edward,
and the
death of
Henry III.**

away in the East when, in 1272, Henry III. ended his long reign. During his lifetime the old Norman despotism had faded slowly into the free, popular monarchy of the real conqueror of Earl Simon, who now became King Edward I.

QUESTIONS

1. Tell what you know of the character of Henry III. In what ways did he misrule the country?
2. Who were the advisers of the king till 1232? What event in his life led to the inflow of foreigners into England?
3. Who was Earl Simon? Why did he lead the barons against the king? How has he become famous in the history of England?
4. Tell what you know of the Barons' Wars. Mention the names of the battles fought.
5. How did the country benefit by the misrule of Henry III.?

CHAPTER XII

Edward I. 1272-1307

[Married (1) Eleanor of Castile; (2) Margaret of France]

Principal Dates :

- 1272. Accession of Edward I.
- 1282. Conquest of North Wales
- 1292. John Balliol made King of Scots.
- 1295. The Model Parliament.
- 1296. First Conquest of Scotland
- 1297. The Confirmation of the Charters.
- 1298. Battle of Falkirk.
- 1306. Rising of Robert Bruce.
- 1307. Death of Edward I.

1. Edward I. was the first king after the Conquest to have an English name and an English heart. He was clever enough to profit by the hard teaching which he had received during the Barons' Wars. He loved power too well to part with it willingly. But he saw that if he wished to be a successful ruler, he must make his policy popular. Thus, though every inch a king, Edward strove to carry on the great idea of Earl Simon's of taking the people into a sort of partnership with him. The result was that the people trusted and followed him. He found that he could thus get more of his own way than by always wrangling with his subjects. A tall, fine, powerful man, a magnificent swordsman and sportsman, a strenuous and brave general, and a loyal and honourable gentleman, he drew people to his side by his wisdom, his popu-

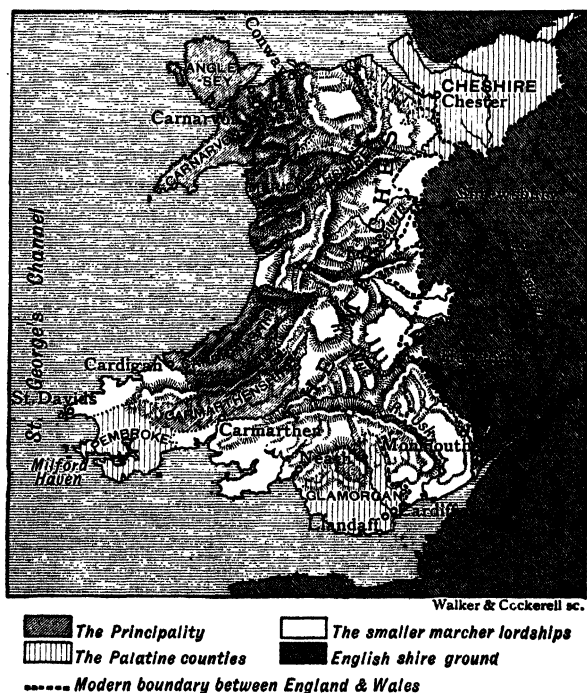
larity, and his graciousness. He was proud of his straightforwardness, and boasted that he always kept his word. He had two chief faults. One was his hot temper, which sometimes made him hard and almost cruel. The other was a curious narrowness of mind, which made him sometimes look at the letter rather than the spirit of his promises. He never told lies, like his father; but he did not mind twisting the plain meaning of what he said, provided that he never actually violated his word. These defects, together with an ambition that led him to undertake more than he was able to carry out, show us why he sometimes failed. But with all his faults, Edward well deserves the title, which has been given him, of the *Greatest of the Plantagenets*.

2. Edward was proclaimed king in his absence. Though nearly two years passed before he got back to England, the calm which had endured since the end of the Barons' Wars was never broken. But trouble was already brewing in one quarter. *Llywelyn*, Prince

**The conquest of the
Principality
of Wales**

of Wales, refused to perform the homage due from him to the new king. He was the descendant of those lords of Snowdon who had in earlier days maintained their freedom against the Norman barons who had conquered so much of southern and eastern Wales. But as time went on the Norman power had waned. Though Norman nobles called *Lords Marcher* still ruled over those parts of the land called the *March of Wales*, *Llywelyn* was master of all the north of Wales, and of some of the south, and his claim to be prince of all Wales had been acknowledged by the English. He now rashly strove to make himself altogether independent, but Edward soon proved too strong for him. On two occasions Edward led an army into the mountains of Snowdon. The first expedition crushed *Llywelyn's* power. The second, in 1282, led to his

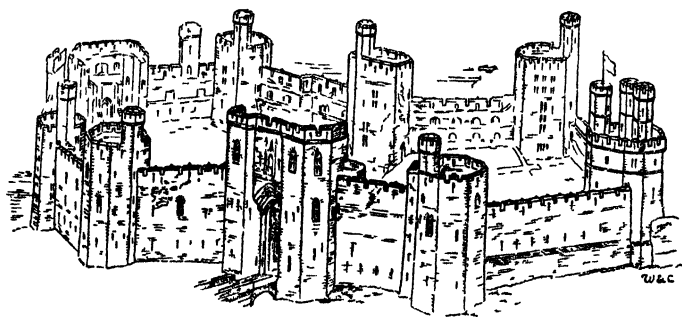
death in battle, and the conquest of all his lands. Thus triumphant over all Wales, Edward allowed the Lords Marcher to continue their rule in the March of Wales,



WALES AND THE MARCHES BETWEEN THE CONQUEST OF EDWARD I.
AND THE UNION UNDER HENRY VIII.

but annexed the *Principality*, that is, Llywelyn's dominions, to the crown. He divided the Principality into five counties, like the shires of England, and added

another new county, Flintshire, to the Earldom of Chester, which had previously fallen, like the Principality, into the king's hands. In all his acts Edward strove to deal fairly with the Welsh, though he did not understand them well enough to respect their feelings. However, after a time Wales settled down peaceably. To secure his conquest Edward built towns and castles in Wales, and filled them with English traders and soldiers. At Conway Edward's walls and castle still stand. In one of Edward's castles, at Carnarvon, his son, the future Edward II., was now born. Many years later, the young Edward was made Prince of Wales



CARNARVON CASTLE

(From Clark's *Military Architecture of the Middle Ages*)

by his father. After this it gradually became the fashion to create the king's eldest son Prince of Wales, and that custom has lasted down to our own days.

3. Edward soon had a chance of trying to carry out a similar attempt in Scotland. Like Wales, Scotland had become stronger and freer than in Norman times. But while in Wales Welshman and Englishman still kept apart, in Scotland the different races inhabiting

the country were getting more closely drawn together. The original Scots were, like the modern Highlanders, Celts, and talked a language very like Irish. But they had lived north of the Clyde and the Forth. Not long before the Norman Conquest the Scottish kings had acquired the northern part of the old English kingdom of Northumbria. This was called *Lothian*, and ran from the Forth to the Tweed. Also the northern part of the old kingdom of the Strathclyde Welsh, the lands between the Clyde and the Solway, fell under the Scots kings' rule. By this time the Welsh of the south-west, the Norman nobles, who had settled all over the land, and the English-speaking dwellers in Lothian were now sufficiently united with the Celts of the North for all to call themselves Scots. Thus the English, Welsh, and Normans in the north became the Lowland Scots of later history, speaking a form of the English language which was now beginning to be called the Lowland Scots tongue. The original Scots were henceforth called the *Highlanders*, and their language more often *Gaelic* than Scots. Both Highlanders and Lowlanders were ruled by one king, and so long as the kings were powerful and wise, the country grew in wealth and civilisation.

4. Since Henry II.'s time England and Scotland had been generally on good terms, and the royal houses had more than once been joined together by marriage. But those happy days were now ended. In 1286 *Alexander III.*, King of Scots, met his death by an accident. Three years later (1289), his granddaughter and successor, *Margaret of Norway*, died before she so much as visited Scotland. Her death left none but distant kinsmen to claim the crown. Each of the several rivals had his following. It seemed as if civil war could alone decide who was to be the next king.

**Scotland
up to the
death of
Alexander
III.**

**The Scottish
Succession**

5. The Scots resolved to avoid a long struggle by asking Edward to decide which of the claimants had the best right to the throne. Edward required that all the Scottish barons and every claimant to the throne should take oaths of fealty to him as their overlord before he began to examine the question. Unless this condition were fulfilled, he refused to act.

**The Scots
appeal to
Edward**

6. The Scots were much alarmed at Edward's request. In earlier days the kings of Scots had often recognised the English king as their overlord. But for a hundred years there had been no clear case of their doing this. It is true that every Scottish king had taken oaths to be faithful to the English king. But the kings of Scots had also held large estates in England, and it was not always certain whether they had done homage for their English lands or for their kingdom. As Scotland grew stronger and richer the Scots became more unwilling to acknowledge a foreign king as their superior. But however much the Scots disliked Edward's claim, they felt that, if Edward did not settle the question of the succession, Scotland would fall into a terrible state of confusion. Accordingly Edward was recognised as overlord of Scotland. When each of the claimants had sworn fealty to him, he appointed judges to determine the great suit.

**Edward
acknow-
ledged by
the Scots as
their over-
lord**

7. The trial took place at Berwick-on-Tweed in 1292. The two chief claimants were *John Balliol* and *Robert Bruce*. After careful and impartial examination of the case, Edward decided that John Balliol was the rightful heir of Alexander III. Accordingly Balliol did homage to Edward, and was at once crowned King of Scots. All Scotland gladly accepted him as king, and it looked as if the dispute were peacefully settled.

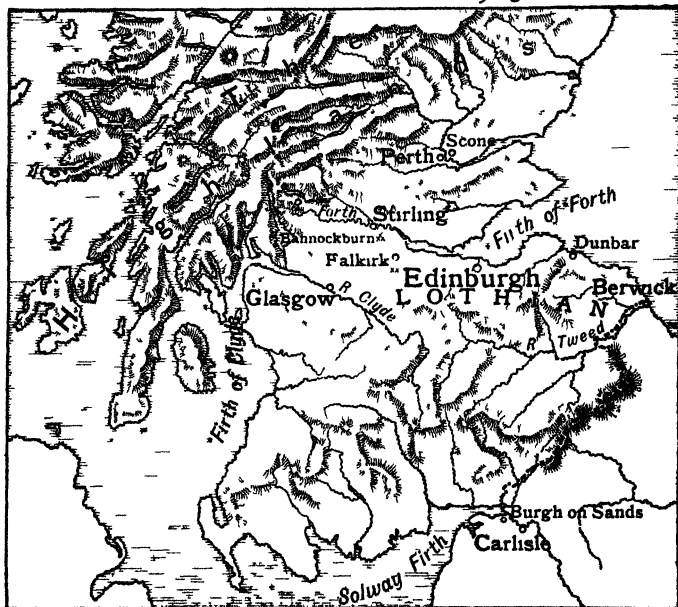
**Edward
makes John
Balliol King
of Scots**

8. Very soon troubles broke out between Edward and the Scots. In the old days the overlordship of

England over Scotland had signified very little. But to Edward it now meant a great deal. He thought that the Scots ought to recognise his power in all the ways in which he himself as Duke of Aquitaine recognised the power of the King of France. Now it was the custom in Edward's French dominions that when people went to law with

The question of appeals

SOUTHERN SCOTLAND 1289-1328.



Walker & Cockerell sc

each other, the losers in the suit, if they were not satisfied with the decision, went to the court of the King of France and got him to try the case over again. This was called *appealing* to the court of the overlord. Edward thought it was only right that Scotsmen

should have the same power to appeal from the Scottish law courts to those of the English king. Very soon Scots, who were beaten in their lawsuits, called upon Edward to hear their case over again, and he gladly agreed to do so. But King John declared that he had never promised to allow any such power to Edward, and refused to permit the Scots to appeal to English courts.

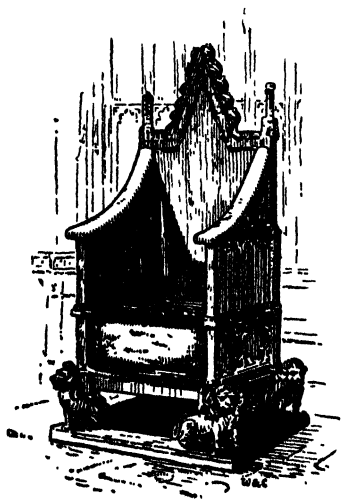
9. Edward looked upon John's action as rebellion, and in 1296 led an army into Scotland to punish his disobedient vassal. King John surrendered after a very poor resistance, and Edward deprived him of his throne. The English king now treated Scotland just as he had treated Wales after the death of Llywelyn. He declared it annexed to his dominions, and appointed English nobles to rule the Scots in his name. As a sign of his

**Edward's
first
conquest
of Scotland**

triumph, he took from Scotland to England an ancient stone upon which the Scottish kings had always sat when they were crowned at *Scone*, near Perth. It was built up in the new coronation chair of the English kings and ever since the English kings have sat upon it when they were crowned.

10. Though Edward strove to rule Scotland well, many of those who governed in his name were hard and cruel men. Moreover, the

**Wallace's
rising**



CORONATION CHAIR,
WESTMINSTER ABBEY

Scots hated the English rule even when it was fair and just. They soon rose in revolt under the leadership of a brave and fierce knight named *Sir William Wallace*. Before long Wallace drove the English out of Scotland, and cruelly plundered and devastated the English border. In 1298 Edward once more led an army into Scotland, and fought against Wallace the *Battle of Falkirk*. The English knights strove to win the day by a cavalry charge. Wallace's soldiers were nearly all on foot, and stood together in close order, protected by a wall of pikes from the fierce rush of the mail-clad English host. After a long struggle the English won a complete victory and Wallace fled from the field. English rule was restored over Scotland, and Edward drew up a wise plan for its government, by which the Scots were to send representatives to the English Parliament. Years after the battle of Falkirk, Wallace was caught by Edward. In 1305 he was taken to London and beheaded as a traitor. The English looked upon Wallace as a robber and murderer, and dealt very harshly with him. But the Scots almost worshipped him as their national hero. Before long poets wandered through the land, singing of the great deeds which he had done in upholding Scottish independence.

11. Scotland was now conquered a second time, but once more Edward found that he could not hold his conquest. *Robert Bruce*, grandson of the competitor for the throne against John Balliol, now put himself at the head of the Scots. For years he had been on Edward's side, but in 1306 he joined the popular party. He soon showed himself to be a shrewd statesman and a prudent general. The Scots crowned him as their king at Scone, and Edward found that he had to conquer Scotland for a third time. He was now an old man, and his health was breaking up. But in his fierce

**Rising of
Robert
Bruce**

wrath, he took the field in person against Bruce. He had not yet crossed the Border when he died at *Burgh-on-Sands*, near Carlisle, ordering his son with his last breath never to rest until he had conquered Bruce and the Scots. His body was taken to Westminster for burial. There, among the gorgeous carved tombs of smaller kings and princes, can still be seen the plain slab of stone which covers the remains of the greatest of the Plantagenets. Upon it is written this inscription in Latin—'Here lies Edward I., the hammer of the Scots. Keep Troth.'

12. Edward was not only an able soldier but also a lawgiver and an administrator. He enacted a series of new laws the object of some of which was to curb the power of the barons. In 1278 he passed the Statute of Gloucester. According to it an enquiry was ordered into all law courts and jurisdictions held by the feudal barons in order to limit their number. Commissioners went throughout the country to every franchise and demanded of the holder the authority for exercising his right. Edward's object was to break the power of the nobles and make every court depend on the Crown. The barons bitterly resented his action as an attack on their privileges. Some of them even became defiant. But Edward was wise enough not to force them to extremities. Another law was passed regarding the sale of land by the barons. The effect of this was to bring all landowners into closer connection with the king and to weaken the power of the barons.

**Edward's
relations
with the
Barons**

13. Perhaps the most important thing to remember about Edward in England is that he was the real *founder of the modern English Constitution*. In the worst days of his reign, when the Scots were in arms against him, he found himself beset with troubles on every side. The French king helped the Scots and

**The Making
of Parlia-
ment**

tried to conquer Gascony. The Welsh rose in revolt, the barons refused to fight, and the Church began to protest against Edward's attacks on its liberties. Edward saw that he could only get over his difficulties by reviving Simon de Montfort's policy of consulting the people. Accordingly in 1295 he summoned the *first Complete or Model Parliament* that ever met in England. In it every *Estate*, or section of the people, was fully represented. At first there were three Estates—the clergy, the nobles, and the commons. But before very long the higher clergy, the bishops and abbots, took their seats with the barons while the lower clergy ceased to be represented in Parliament at all. But the 'lords spiritual and temporal', who together became the *House of Lords*, are nowadays what corresponds to the Estates of clergy and nobles. The knights of the shires and the members elected by the cities and boroughs sat together in the *House of Commons* as the spokesmen of the Estate of the Commons. Thus the Constitution was established with king, lords, and commons, very much as it is now.

14. Before very long, Edward was compelled to go further than he wished in the way of concessions to his people. In 1297 he was forced once more to confirm the Great Charter, and to add to it new clauses by which he promised to raise no more fresh taxes without the consent of Parliament. With this *Confirmation of the Charters* the long struggle which began at Runnymede came to an end. Even against a strong king like Edward I. the English people was able to enforce its will. It now secured that even the fiercest of English kings should rule according to law and not according to his own wishes. Henceforth England became a limited and constitutional monarchy, controlled by a free and representative Parliament.

QUESTIONS

1. Mention some of the good features of Edward I.
2. Who was Llywelyn? What led to the war between him and Edward I.? What steps did Edward I. take to bring Wales under his control after his conquest?
3. In what matter did the Scots require the help of Edward I.? How did Edward help them?
4. What led to the trouble between John Balliol and Edward? How did the quarrel end?
5. How did the Scots show that they disliked Edward's rule?
Who was their leader? Tell how Edward I. restored English rule over Scotland.
6. What was the cause of the fresh trouble in Scotland? Tell what you know of Robert Bruce.
7. Why was Edward I. called the 'hammer of the Scots'?
8. What made Edward I. summon the Parliament in 1295? Why was it called the Model Parliament? What concessions did he grant the people by the confirmation of the charters?

CHAPTER XIII

England in the Thirteenth Century

1. By the end of the reign of Edward I. the new England that had begun with the Norman Conquest had attained a very great amount of prosperity. The amalgamation of the English and the Normans had long been complete. Though French was still a good deal spoken at court and by the upper classes, the king and the nobles were quite as English at heart as the poorest of the Commons. The whole reign of Edward I. is a sufficient proof of this.

The English nation

2. Parliament in the early days of Henry III. was merely another name for the Great Council of the tenants-in-chief. Since the days of Simon de Montfort it became usual to strengthen the baronial element by summoning representatives of the shires and towns. After Edward I.'s time the only body to which the name of Parliament rightly belonged was the representative assembly of the three estates. After 1322 no law was regarded as valid unless it had been approved by this body. The law courts took their modern shape by the time of Edward I. There were three 'Common law Courts', which were busy holding trials and pronouncing judgment. They administered the generally recognised but unwritten law of the land, though from time to time such law was modified or added to by Parliament. A new development was taking place in the king's Great Council, and an ordinary or *Privy Council* was separating out from it. This Privy Council was in constant attendance on the king, and

Parliament and the Law Courts

consisted of his ministers, judges, courtiers and personal friends. As many of the members were great barons and bishops, it could sometimes take up a fairly independent line. Though not supposed to legislate, it published Ordinances that everyone had to obey, and which were laws in all but name.

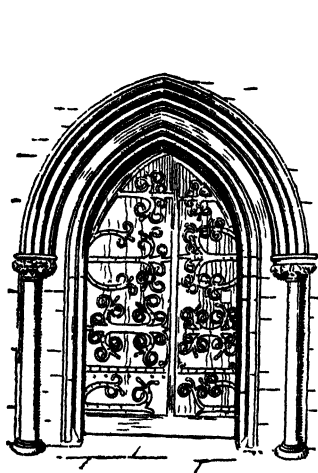
3. In the towns trade and the making of goods were becoming more specialised. In many places the old Gild Merchant was beginning to give place to more specialised clubs. To these belonged only those who were engaged in the making and selling of a special type of article. Such guilds were the goldsmiths or the bakers. These guilds exercised a very strict control over their members both as to the type of article they produced, and even as to their personal conduct. The full members or masters, were only admitted to the privilege after serving a term as apprentices, and passing a test in their craft. Below the masters were journey-men, or wage earners, and apprentices.

**The Craft
Gilds**

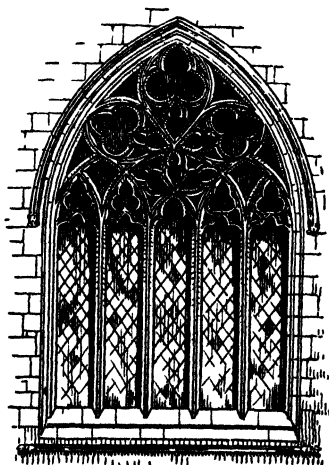
4. The solid Norman style of building was merging into a more graceful style. By Henry III.'s time Gothic had attained its finest proportions. Churches were then erected in the style called *Early English*, with lancet windows, clustered shafts, and great delicacy of detail. Under Edward I. a richer style gradually came in, which is called *Decorated*. Perhaps the most beautiful churches were built in the days of Henry III. and Edward I. We can see in the pictures here given some of the differences of detail between these two forms of Gothic, and of its relations to the older Anglo-Saxon and Norman styles. Castles too were built in a more elaborate style, until we reach the famous castles, built by Edward I., in Wales. These are called *Concentric*, because they consist of several lines of defence circling round a common centre.

**Early
Gothic
Architecture**

5. The church was now at its strongest. Reinvigorated by the Norman Conquest, it was kept active and energetic by a series of great leaders and teachers, such as Anselm and Becket. The monks grew more wealthy and powerful than ever, and from time to time fresh *orders* or forms of monastic life were established. The



EARLY ENGLISH DOORWAY,
LEFFINGTON, BERKSHIRE



DECORATED WINDOW, LEIGH
CHURCH, STAFFORDSHIRE

most important of these were the *Mendicant Orders*, which came into England in the reign of Henry III.

The two chief mendicant orders were the **The Mendicant Friars** Franciscans and the Dominicans, founded by Francis, an Italian, and Dominic, a Spaniard. While the older orders of monks held great landed estates, Francis and Dominic ordered their followers to possess nothing at all, but to gain their living by begging for their bread. This was why they were called the mendicant or begging orders. They were

also styled the *Friars* or *brethren*, a word taken from the French *frère*. They were therefore often described as the Mendicant Friars.

6. Another difference between the Friars and the older orders was this. While the Benedictines and the other earlier monks aimed at withdrawing from the world as much as they could, the Friars lived in the world and tried to make it better. They preached, visited the sick, cared for the poor, and made themselves loved and feared by every class of society. As time went on they fell away from their early activity. But even in their decline they remained very powerful, and down to the Reformation the Friars continued to be the chief teachers of religion to the poor.

**Their work
among the
poor**

7. The Friars played a big part in the universities too, and the Franciscans founded a famous school at Oxford. During the thirteenth century the Universities developed greatly, and *Halls* or *Inns* began to grow up. These were in origin boarding houses kept by the masters at which the students, many of whom were still quite young, were able to stay instead of lodging with the townsfolk. There were a number of riots between the students and townsmen. So more and more power was given by the king to the university at the expense of the town. Another development was the beginning of the colleges. These grew from small foundations intended to help the poor scholar who could not afford to keep himself at the University. After a time paying members joined the colleges. As a result of a very long development the colleges both at Oxford and Cambridge gradually absorbed practically all the members of the University, and became all powerful in University government.

**Growth of
the Univer-
sities**

8. Taken altogether, life in those days was very picturesque and full of strange contrasts between what

was bad and what was good. But things were moving steadily forward. Life became much less rough and savage than it had been. The fierce soldier

**Contrasts of
mediaeval
life**

was still very powerful, and there was still much bloodshed, misery, and famine.

But however much we may be struck by the differences between our times and those of Edward I.'s we must never forget how, after all, human nature was very much the same then as it is now. And in some ways, perhaps, the men of Edward's time could do things better than the men of the present day. In particular, they could build those splendid buildings, which alone would show that England had far outgrown its earlier barbarism, and had acquired a fine perception of what was beautiful and true.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the Privy Council? What were its duties? Who were the members of the body?
2. Write a few lines about the craft guilds.
3. Who were the Mendicant Friars? What useful work did they do?
4. Tell in a few lines how the universities developed in the 13th century.

CHAPTER XIV

Edward II. of Carnarvon, 1307-1327

(Married Isabella of France)

Principal Dates :

- 1307. Accession of Edward II.
- 1312. Murder of Gaveston.
- 1314. Battle of Bannockburn.
- 1327. Deposition of Edward II.

1. Edward II., the son and successor of Edward I., was a strange contrast to his father. Though tall, strong, and good-looking, he was a coward and an idler. Even bad kings like John had taken seriously the work of ruling the kingdom. But Edward II. thought of nothing but amusing himself. He had long been influenced for evil by *Piers Gaveston*, a gentleman from that part of Aquitaine called *Gascony*. Edward I. had driven the young Gascon out of the country in the hope that in his absence the heir to the throne might learn better ways. But all his father's care was thrown away on such a worthless fellow as Edward. As soon as he had become king, he brought Gaveston back to England. He neglected his solemn promise to his father to persevere in the war against the Scots, and hurried back to London. Before long the barons grew indignant against the weak king and his insolent and greedy favourite. They twice expelled Gaveston from the country, but on each occasion he soon came back again. At last the barons took him prisoner and put him to death. Edward was too feeble even to

**Edward II.
and Gaves-
ton**

revenge Gaveston's murder, and soon had to make terms with his enemies. But with such a king as Edward, things were sure to go on badly whoever was in power. All through the reign there was constant quarrelling between the king and the barons. Thus the country was very badly governed and every one was discontented.

2. Edward II.'s weakness did good to nobody but Robert Bruce and the Scots. When Edward II. gave up fighting the war in person, the chances of the new Scottish king

**Robert
Bruce wins
over all
Scotland**

grew brighter. Bit by bit Bruce chased away the English garrisons. After about six years he had conquered nearly all Scotland. Only a few castles still held out for Edward. The chief of these was *Stirling*, a strong fortress situated on the river Forth, and the place through which the best road from the Lowlands to the Highlands passed. At last Bruce besieged Stirling also, and soon the garrison was so hard pressed, that they agreed to surrender if not relieved by St. John's Day, 24th June 1314.

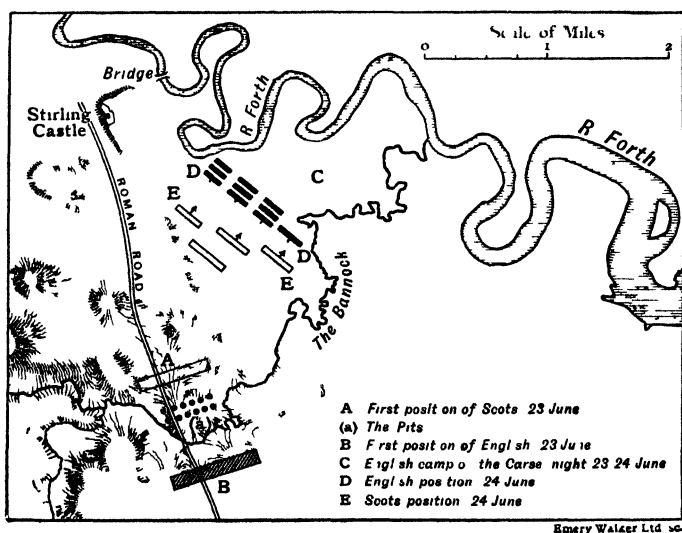
3. If Stirling fell, the English rule in Scotland was at an end. Even Edward II. felt that he must make an effort to avoid so deep a disgrace. He was at this moment on fair terms with his barons, so a large army was raised which marched slowly into Scotland. It only came near Stirling on the day before that appointed for the surrender. Bruce resolved to fight a battle to prevent the siege being raised. He took up a strong

**The Battle
of Bannock-
burn**



EDWARD II.

position on the north bank of the *Bannockburn*, a few miles south of Stirling, and awaited the English advance. The English crossed the Bannock lower down, hoping to outflank him and open up communication with Stirling. They lost heavily in two skirmishes on that day, and camped that night in the marshy flats between the Forth and the Bannock. Bruce saw that



BATTLE OF BANNOCKBURN

the enemy had delivered themselves into his hands and, boldly deserting his defensive lines, he ordered his soldiers to advance against them. The Scots pikemen went to the fight in dense squares, each man standing shoulder to shoulder with his long pike ready to ward off the rush of the English mail-clad warriors on their heavy horses. As the English horse thundered towards the foe, the Scottish archers threw them into

confusion by well-directed flights of arrows. Then the pikemen advanced and soon won a complete victory. The English were driven from the field, and Edward himself was among the first to flee. Many were drowned in the Forth or Bannock, and the whole host at once melted away.

4. The battle was decisive. There was still a great deal of fighting, but the Scots continued to win. At last in 1328, Edward III. signed the *Peace of Northampton*, by which he recognised Bruce as King of Scots, and released Scotland from all feudal dependence on England.

**Scotland
secures its
independ-
ence**

5. Edward reigned twelve years after Bannockburn, but all that time things grew worse and worse. He now had new favourites, the two *Hugh Despensers*, father and son. These were, at least, English noblemen, and not foreign upstarts like Gaveston. But they were soon as bitterly hated as ever Gaveston had been. Their greediness and pride set every one against them. But Edward upheld them until his fondness proved his ruin.

**Edward II.
and the
Despensers**

6. *Isabella of France*, Edward's wife, was a bad woman, but she had plenty of real grievances against her husband and the Despensers. She cleverly pretended to be contented, and got from Edward permission to go to France to see her brother, the French king. Their little son, also named Edward, went with her. At Paris she made friends with *Roger Mortimer*, a brutal baron from the March of Wales, whom the Despensers had driven into banishment. They agreed to cross over to England and make war against the king. Before long, Isabella, her son, and Mortimer landed in England with a little army. Men were so weary of the king and his favourites that they gladly welcomed

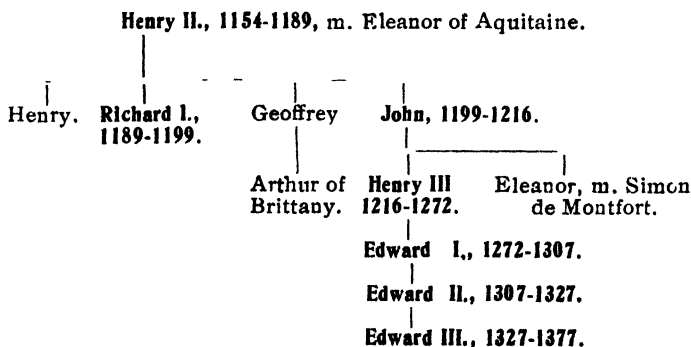
**The
deposition of
Edward II.**

her. Edward fled to his native Wales, but was soon taken prisoner and deposed. The young Edward was made Edward III., but Isabella and Mortimer really governed in his name. Next year Edward II. was cruelly murdered at *Berkeley Castle* in Gloucestershire. In the neighbouring cathedral of Gloucester stands the beautiful tomb set up over his remains.

QUESTIONS

1. How was Edward II. quite different from his father? Who was his adviser? What did the barons do with him?
2. Under what circumstances was the battle of Bannockburn fought? How do you account for the English defeat?
3. Who were the new favourites of the king? By whom was the king deposed? What became of him afterwards?

GENEALOGY OF THE ENGLISH KINGS FROM HENRY II. TO EDWARD III.



CHAPTER XV

Edward III., 1327-1377

(Married Philippa of Hainault)

Principal Dates :

- 1327. Accession of Edward III.
- 1328. Peace of Northampton.
- 1330. Isabella and Mortimer driven from power.
- 1337. Beginning of the Hundred Years' War.
- 1340. Battle of Sluys.
- 1346. Battles of Crecy and Neville's Cross.
- 1349. The Black Death.
- 1356. Battle of Poitiers.
- 1360. Treaty of Bretigny.
- 1376. The Good Parliament.
- 1377. Death of Edward III.

1. Edward III. was only fifteen when he was made king, and so for three years Isabella and Mortimer ruled in his name. The chief power was with Mortimer, who was made *Earl of March* (that is, of the March of Wales), and given great estates. His arrogance and cruelty made him hated by the barons. The peace of Northampton, made in 1328, which acknowledged Bruce as King of Scots was so much disliked that men called it 'the disgraceful peace'. In 1330 the young king threw off Mortimer's yoke and had him put to death, and thus Edward III.'s real reign began.

2. Edward was a tall, strong, brave, and vigorous king. He was fond of show and display, and kept up a magnificent court. He was a good soldier, and eager to win fame as a general. His first wish was to restore the reputation which his country had lost during the evil days of his father. So he supported

Edward Balliol, son of John Balliol, who, after Robert Bruce's death, disputed the Scottish throne with *David*, Robert's son. Edward Balliol succeeded for a short time. But before long David Bruce drove him out and secured his father's inheritance. The French, who had already helped King Robert, did a great deal towards bringing back his son.

**Edward
renews the
war with
Scotland**



EDWARD III.



QUEEN PHILIPPA
(Wife of Edward III.)

3. War with France soon followed war with Scotland. This war lasted so long that it is generally

called the *Hundred Years' War*. It was not, however, true that fighting went on all that time without a break.

**Causes of
the Hundred
Years' War**

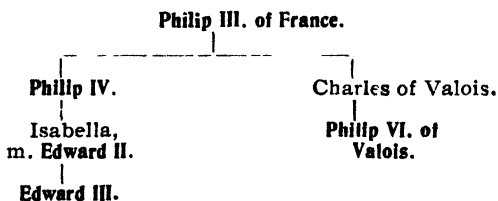
But for more than a hundred years England and France were nearly always unfriendly, and generally actually at war with each other. The beginning of the enmity between the two countries was owing to the help which Philip VI., who was then King of France, had given to David Bruce. But there were many other causes of quarrel. Edward still ruled part of Aquitaine which Queen Eleanor had brought as her wedding portion to Henry II. This country was called *Guienne* and *Gascony*, and its chief town was Bordeaux. The French kings had long tried to drive out the English dukes from Gascony, and make it, as they had made Normandy, part of their own dominions. In the same way the French kings were anxious to conquer *Flanders*, the western part of the country now called Belgium. Flanders in those days was the chief manufacturing country of Northern Europe. Its largest towns, Ghent and Bruges, were the best customers that England had for its produce. England in those days was not, as it is now, a great manufacturing country. Most of its people were farmers. The chief article exported was wool, which was sent to Flanders to be woven into cloth by the Flemish manufacturers. The great towns of Flanders were very much opposed to the King of France, and the English helped them willingly in their resistance to his attacks upon their liberties. All these reasons caused Englishmen and Frenchmen to dislike each other very much. Edward brought this hostility to a head by declaring that he was himself the rightful King of France.

4. Philip VI. of Valois had been King of France since 1328. The three kings before him had been brothers of Isabella, Edward III.'s mother, but all had died without leaving a son. The French nobles were

anxious always to be ruled by a man. They declared that the law that no woman should rule prevailed in France,¹ and therefore the throne should go to Philip, the cousin of the last kings and of Isabella. Accordingly Philip became King of France, Isabella and Edward raising but a faint protest. Ten years later, however, when France and England were already drifting into war, Edward formally demanded the throne. He admitted that his mother could not reign in France, but said that she was able to hand on her claim to him. Accordingly he assumed the title of King of France, and from that moment to the days of George III. every English king called himself also King of France, and quartered on his shield the lilies of France, with the lions of England. It was this pretension that made the war last more than a hundred years. Edward's claim was not a just one. The French rightly resisted it, as it would have meant their being ruled by a foreigner.

**Edward's
claim to the
French
throne**

TABLE SHOWING THE CLAIMS OF EDWARD III. AND PHILIP VI.
TO THE FRENCH THRONE



5. Parliament was glad that Edward was going to fight the French. It willingly granted him money with which he fitted out gallant armies. Yet during the first years of the war Edward won but few successes. But in 1340 he gained a great sea-fight at *Sluys* off the Flemish coast.

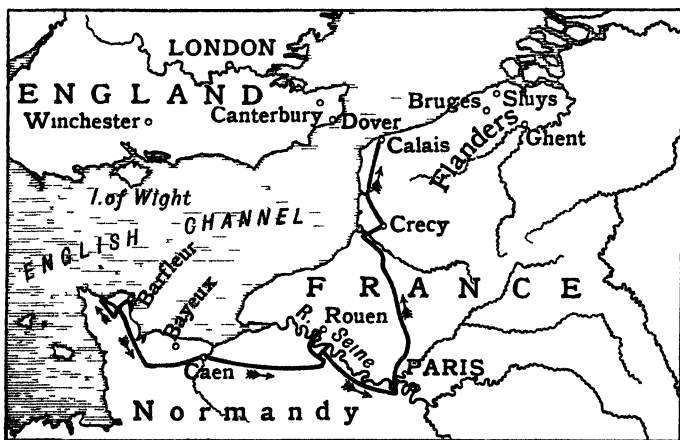
**The Battle
of Sluys**

¹ This law was afterwards called the Salic Law.

It was one of the earliest and most decisive of English naval victories. This gave England control of the channel and enabled her to send what armies she would to France.

6. In 1346 Edward invaded Normandy, taking with him his young son *Edward, Prince of Wales*, called, from the colour of his armour, the *Black Prince*. After marching from the Norman coast almost to the gates of Paris, the English were forced by superior numbers to retreat

The Battle of Crecy



Walker & Cockrell sc

THE CAMPAIGN OF EDWARD III. IN 1346

northwards. Before long the French came up to them and compelled them to fight a battle at the little village of *Crecy*. The French host was much bigger than the English army, but the English were better trained and more experienced soldiers. They had learned from the disaster at Bannockburn that well-disciplined infantry, supported by archers, could resist the fierce shock of

feudal cavalry. Accordingly the English dismounted, took a strong position on the slope of a hill, and prepared to meet the French on foot. After vain attempts to break up the close English array by showers of bolts from their cross-bows, the chivalry of France

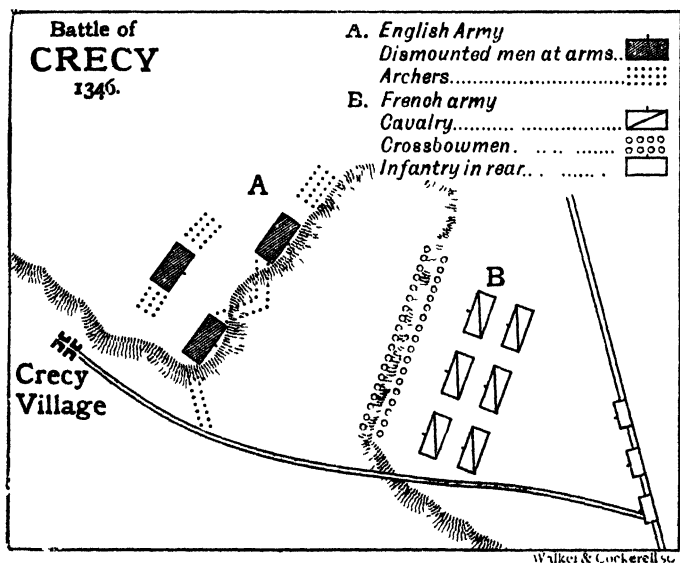


THE BATTLE OF CRECY
(Showing English Archers and French Knights)

charged on horseback up to the English lines. But, like the English at Bannockburn, they were thrown into confusion by well-directed flights of arrows, and failed to break through. Before long the little English army

gained the most complete of victories. The Black Prince, young as he was, had a great share in winning this battle.

7. Crecy was not the only success of the year.



David Bruce, who invaded England in the hope of helping the French, was beaten at *Neville's Cross*, near Durham, and taken prisoner. Moreover, next year Edward took the French seaport of *Calais* which remained English for more than two hundred years. For all this period it served as the open gate through which England might pour its armies into northern France.

8. A few years after this, Edward the Black Prince was made Duke of Aquitaine, and sent to Bordeaux. There he ruled over as brilliant and gallant a court as

that of his father in London. In those days the men of southern France hated the French king. The north Frenchmen among whom Edward lived, preferred to be ruled by their English dukes, who were sprung from their own ancient line of rulers. So the Gascons were as devoted to him as were the English. Year after year, the Black Prince led the best of the knights of England and Gascony in forays into the French king's lands.

The Black Prince in Aquitaine, and the Battle of Poitiers



EDWARD, THE
BLACK PRINCE

In 1356, on his return from one of these expeditions, he was attacked near *Poitiers* by a vastly larger army led by King John of France, the son and successor of Philip VI. By this time the French had learned the lesson of Crecy. Leaving their horses in the rear, they went to battle on foot after the English fashion. But they were new to this way of fighting, and were out-generalled by the English. After a desperate struggle, the French were defeated, and King John himself was taken prisoner.

9. France now fell into such a terrible condition that in 1360 John was glad to make peace in the *Treaty of Calais*. By this Edward gave up his claim to the French crown on condition of his receiving the part of France between the Loire and the Pyrenees, the complete inheritance of Eleanor of Aquitaine. But this peace did not last very long. The newly won

provinces revolted from their English rulers, and everything went to the bad when ill-health compelled the

Black Prince to return from Bordeaux to London. Before Edward III.'s death the English had lost nearly

The Treaty of Calais and the collapse of the English power in France

all they had won from the French except a few coast towns like Calais and Bordeaux. These were easy to hold because the English still commanded the sea. But even in this period of triumph, the French avoided fighting pitched battles with the terrible English. Crecy and Poitiers had made the English archer and man-at-arms the most famous soldiers in Christendom.

10. One result of the long war with France was that the king and nobles, in their dislike of the French,

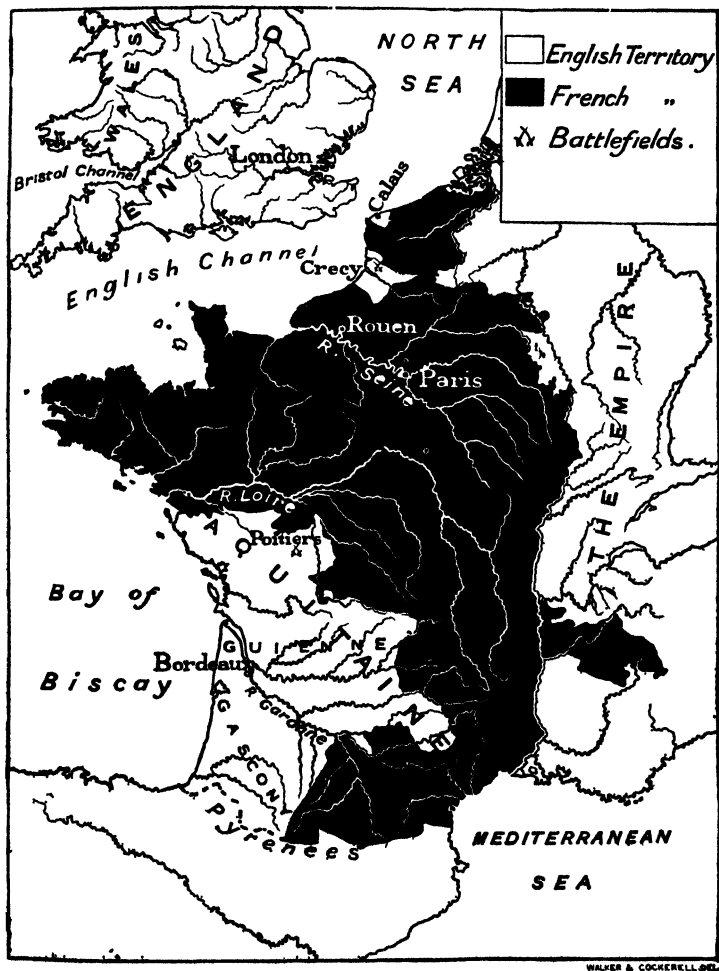
Chaucer and the revival of the English tongue

began using English as their daily speech, for the first time since the Norman Conquest. English thus became once more a tongue of courts and society, and many more books were now written in it. The most famous English writer of this period was the great poet, *Geoffrey Chaucer*, a servant of Edward III. His *Canterbury Tales* give us a vivid and true account of the life of those days. But the cheerful and merry England which Chaucer describes was but one side of the picture. As a whole, Edward's reign was by no means one of unmixed prosperity.

11. In 1349 a plague called the *Black Death* spread misery all over Europe. In England it is thought that

The Black Death: Its Social and Economic Results

one man in three died of it, and it was long before its ravages were forgotten. With the Black Death the days of prosperity had ended. There were not enough labourers to till the fields. The immediate result of this was that wages rose. Consequently the prices of most commodities rose and men found it impossible to pay the prices and wages. Parliament, in 1351, passed a law called the *Statute of Labourers*. It enacted that the prices and wages should remain as



THE ENGLISH DOMINIONS IN FRANCE AFTER THE
TREATY OF CALAIS, 1360

they had been before the pestilence. But labourers would not work unless they were paid what they asked for. The landholders therefore had to pay the higher wages in order to save their crops from perishing in the fields for lack of harvest men. But one thing the landholders could do. They could grow those crops that needed little labour. Corn-growing thus gave place to sheep-farming and cattle-rearing and the amount of employment in the country became permanently less.

The king was not so wise in governing his kingdom as he was brave in fighting the French. He was greedy and unscrupulous, often deceiving his Parliaments in order to get money from them. He was gracious and kindly to knights and nobles. He treated even his enemies with kindness and forbearance, as, for example, the captive kings of France and Scotland. He increased the splendour of his court by founding an order of knighthood called the *Order of the Garter*. This took its name from the garter worn by the knights who were members of it, and the best warriors and nobles were proud to belong to so famous a brotherhood. But Edward cared little for the common people, and often used them cruelly.

12. As Edward grew old, he became sickly and weak, and fell into the hands of unscrupulous ministers. There was much discontent in consequence, and Parliament began to complain bitterly of the king's doings. At last, in 1376, a Parliament met which did so much for the people that men called it the *Good Parliament*.

It brought the king's evil ministers to trial by a new method called *Impeachment*, by which the House of Commons accused them of treason or other grave crimes before the House of Lords. It was the last act of the life of Edward the Black Prince to back

**The Order of
the Garter**

**The Good
Parliament,
and the
death of
Edward III.**

up the Good Parliament. But the king's third son, *John of Gaunt* (so called because he was born at Gaunt or Ghent in Flanders), supported the courtiers against his elder brother. He was his father's favourite and by his marriage with the heiress of the Earls of Lancaster had acquired great estates which Edward III. had erected into the Duchy of Lancaster for him. In the midst of the session, the Black Prince, who had never been in good health since he came back from France, died. After this the Commons were soon sent home, and the bad ministers came back. Before long Edward III. died.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the ambition of Edward III.? Who ruled during his minority?
2. Why was the Hundred Years' War so called? What causes brought about the war? Did Edward III. have a rightful claim to the French throne?
3. Mention the chief battles of the war. Tell how and why the English won at the battle of Crecy.
4. Who led the English at the Battle of Poitiers? What was the effect of the battle on France? What were the conditions of the treaty that brought the war to a close? What led to the collapse of the English power in France later?
5. What was the Black Death? Point out its results.
6. Why was the Parliament of 1376 called the 'Good Parliament'?

CHAPTER XVI

Richard II. of Bordeaux, 1377-1399

[Married (1) Anne of Bohemia; (2) Isabella of France.]

Principal Dates :

- 1377. Accession of Richard II.
- 1381. The Peasants' Revolt.
- 1384. Death of John Wycliffe.
- 1397. Richard II.'s triumph over his enemies.
- 1399. Richard II.'s deposition.

1. Edward III.'s successor was *Richard of Bordeaux*, the son of the Black Prince, who was but a child at his grandfather's death. This made it necessary for the king's council to govern, and John, Duke of Lancaster, was still, as in the days of Edward III., the chief man in the council. But the new reign began badly. Heavy taxes were imposed, but the people got nothing in return for them. The French revenged themselves for past defeats by ravaging the English coasts, and England was ruled weakly and disorder prevailed everywhere. Four years after Richard's accession discontent came to a head in the Peasants' Revolt of 1381.

2. The causes of this rising were very numerous. Since the feudal system had been brought in, a great

deal of the land of England had been cultivated by a class of men called *villeins*, that is, countrymen. These villeins were in some ways very well off. Each of them had his cottage and little patch of ground, from which he could not be turned off so long as he performed his services to his lord. Though they had no luxuries, the villeins seem in the ordinary times to have had plenty of meat, bread, and ale, and enough coarse woollen clothing to keep out the cold. But they were not free.

**The causes
of the
Peasants'
Revolt,
and the
grievances
of the
villeins**



RICHARD II.

(From a Lithograph published by the Arundel Society, after the Portrait in a Diptych belonging to the Earl of Pembroke)

In the centuries succeeding the Norman conquest actual slavery had died out. But one result of feudalism had been that men whose ancestors had once been free, fell into this condition of villeinage. The villeins were serfs, bound to the soil. They could not move from the estate of their lord on which they lived. Moreover, instead of paying a money-rent for their little holding, they were forced to work so many days a week on their lord's farms. As time went on the villeins grew discontented. They complained that their

lords were too harsh, in exacting labour from them, and

they were eager to obtain full freedom. Yet the number of villeins was steadily decreasing. Many ran away from their lords and many were set free altogether, through the Church teaching that it was a pious thing for lords to give villeins their liberty. Thus by this time there were, besides the villeins, many free labourers. These lived where they liked, and like labourers nowadays, worked for a weekly wage. But the free labourers were quite as discontented as the villeins. Unlike the villeins, they had not their small holding of land to fall back upon, and if there was no work for them, they had to beg or starve. Moreover, they complained that wages were too low, and that they were not able to buy enough food or clothing.

3. Besides the unrest among villeins and labourers, every one was disgusted with the bad government and the heavy taxes. At last in 1381 the

**Wat Tyler
and the
Peasants'
Revolt of
1381**

Kentishmen rose in revolt against a new tax called a *poll-tax*, that is, a tax which everybody had to pay. Headed by *Wat Tyler*, they took up arms and marched to London. At the same time the villeins of the Eastern Counties also broke out into rebellion, and demanded that villeinage should be abolished. There were riots all over England, but the Kentish resistance to the poll-tax, and the Eastern Counties rising against villeinage, were by far the most formidable. Like the Kentishmen, the Eastern rebels marched on London. Soon the capital was in their hands. They burnt John of Gaunt's palace, and murdered some of the king's ministers.

4. Richard II. was only sixteen years old, but he courageously went from the safe walls of the Tower and rode among the rebels, promising to help them in their distress. Wat Tyler threatened the king, and the Mayor of London slew him on the spot. The rebels raised a loud cry for vengeance, but Richard declared

that he himself would be their leader now that their chieftain was slain. He promised to pardon their rebellion and release them from villeinage. Pleased with his bravery, many of the peasants went home. But it was soon found that the king had no power to carry out his promises. The gentry, plucking up courage, set to work to put down the revolt systematically. The cruelties, worked by the peasants in their brief moment of triumph, were now repeated against them by their victorious masters. They were forced once more into villeinage, and the only immediate result of the rebellion was that it frightened the Government into better ways, and broke down the power of John of Gaunt. But unsuccessful as the revolt was, it marked the beginning of the end of villeinage. The lords of villeins gradually found out that it was hardly worth the trouble to exact forced labour from their serfs, and that the work was done better by free men paid a reasonable wage. Within a hundred years of the Peasants' Revolt, villeinage almost disappeared.

**Richard II.
puts down
the revolt**

5. There were other discontented men in England besides the peasants. For many hundred years everybody had believed whatever the Church chose to preach. But the Church was neither so pure nor so energetic as it had been a hundred years before. Its great wealth was a snare to its clergy. Many of the bishops spent all their time on politics, and the parish priests were often ignorant and corrupt. Towards the end of Edward III.'s reign, strange doctrines were heard in the University of Oxford with regard to the power of the Church. A sturdy Yorkshireman, named *John Wycliffe*, whose lectures at Oxford had long brought him a great reputation, now taught that only those priests and bishops were to be believed who lived good lives. He declared

**Church
reform;
John
Wycliffe
and the
Lollards**

that the Pope had no authority in England. He urged that the Church should be deprived of its property, so that, being made poor as Christ was, it might be better able to do its work in humbleness and self-devotion. At last he began to deny some of the great doctrines of the Church. His teaching was the more to be dreaded since he was not content with expounding his ideas to students in Oxford lecture-rooms. He sent out followers of his, called Wycliffe's *poor priests*, who wandered about the country, proclaiming the new gospel. Moreover, he wrote short tracts in English that every one could understand. He translated the Bible into English, and taught men to seek in the Bible only for the true doctrines of Christ. His disciples, called *Lollards* or *Babblers*, by the friends of old ways, soon became numerous. But as time went on, Wycliffe's views became so extreme that many ceased to follow him. He was condemned by the Church, and was no longer allowed to lecture at Oxford. But he was permitted to go home to his country parish of Lutterworth in Leicestershire, where he died in 1384. For the rest of the reign, his followers remained very active.

6. The good hopes raised by Richard II.'s conduct during the rebellion were disappointed by his later life. As he grew up, he showed that he was proud, despotic, and careless of his people. But he was no foolish do-nothing like Edward II. He was often lazy and indifferent. From time to time he had outbursts of energy, during which he was well able to frame a policy of his own. He made friends with the French King Charles VI., and married his daughter. After that he only thought of making himself an absolute monarch like his father-in-law in France, and did not even try to get on with his nobles and Parliaments. Once more there arose a party of opposition among the nobles, who for some years managed, as under

**Richard II.
becomes a
tyrant**

Edward II., to deprive the king of all his authority. In 1397, however, Richard utterly triumphed over his enemies. He put several of their leaders to death, one of them being his own uncle, *Thomas, Duke of Gloucester*. Others he drove into banishment. He now had the nation at his mercy, and thought he could rule as sternly as a French king.

7. Of Richard's old enemies, two only remained in England. The chief of these was *Henry of Lancaster*, Duke of Hereford, the eldest son of John of Gaunt. He had deserted the party of the nobles, and been pardoned by the king.

**The banish-
ment of
Henry of
Lancaster**

Richard, however, still distrusted him, and before long banished him from England when he wished to fight a duel. This seemed a very harsh step, since in those days the ordinary way for nobles to settle their quarrels was to fight the matter out. But Richard showed still greater severity a little later. John of Gaunt died, and Henry of Hereford, as his heir, should have been allowed to take possession of his duchy of Lancaster. Instead of allowing this, Richard took the Lancaster estates into his own hands. Henry was indignant, and joined with the other banished enemies of Richard to win back his rights.

8. In 1399 Henry landed at *Ravenspur*, in the Humber, declaring that he asked for nothing but his father's lands and titles. Before long he was at the head of a gallant army. At this moment Richard was away in Ireland.

**The de-
position of
Richard II.**

As soon as the news came that his cousin had returned he hurried back. He was, however, too late. All England had thrown off the yoke of the despotic Richard, just as seventy years before, all England had refused to be ruled by the lazy Edward II. Richard was forced to surrender to Henry, who was no longer content with the duchy of Lancaster, but

also claimed the throne. A Parliament was assembled, which deposed Richard and recognised Henry of Lancaster as Henry IV. Richard, like Edward II., did not long survive his dethronement. Next year he was murdered in his prison of *Pontefract Castle* in Yorkshire.

ENGLAND IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY

9. The fourteenth century, covered by the three reigns of Edward II. and III., and Richard II. saw great changes in England. Parliament steadily grew in power, and the Commons became more important. As most of the taxes were paid by them, they were anxious to control the king's expenses. By the fourteenth century it was considered unlawful for the king to raise general taxes which had not been granted by the Commons. A wise king took care to keep on friendly terms with his Parliament, and even strong rulers were often forced to give up power that they cherished to please it. The law courts grew in importance, and by the fourteenth century the lawyers had ceased to be clergy, and became a lay profession. They were strongly organised with great schools of law in London called the Inns of Court, which took the place of the Universities as far as the study of English law was concerned. These organised lawyers were to play a great part in the development of the power of the Commons and to lead it in its struggle against the king.

By the fourteenth century England had become so peaceable that noblemen had no longer any need to erect castles to live in. Their houses were built in a stately and beautiful fashion. Architecture was changing too. The flowing beauty of the decorated style gave way to the Perpendicular style, which is char-

acterised by the great use made of right angles and upright lines.

In warfare the armed knight fighting from horseback had been proved quite out of date by the battles of Bannockburn and Crecy, and the archer had taken his place as the deciding factor in the battle. The archer went to the fight unprotected except by his steel cap and leather jerkin. His long bow of yew with arrows, a yard long, tipped with steel, and his sword and buckler were his only weapons. Yet the knight remained important in social life. The gay tournaments in which knight tilted against knight were very fashionable. Every knightly house possessed its hereditary arms. The tournament did much to spread the chivalry which was so marked a feature of the age of Edward III. This was further kept up by the Orders of Knighthood, of which Edward's Order of the Garter was the first example. All knights belonged to an international brotherhood of arms, and if their pride of caste made them often contemptuous of the common people, it did good service in promoting kindly feeling between kings, barons and simple country gentlemen.

Towards the end of the century vast changes were going on in the life of the peasants which we have just described; the Black Death brought things to a head, and with the Peasants' Revolt came the break-up of the system of villeinage. The old England of the Middle Ages with its manorial system and its organisation of country-side into lord and villein was slowly but surely passing away.

QUESTIONS

1. Tell why the Peasants revolted in 1381. Who led them? How was the revolt put down by Richard II.? What were the results of the Revolt?

2. What was the condition of the Church now? Who

Richard II. of Bordeaux

preached against it? What was his teaching? What good work did he and his disciples do?

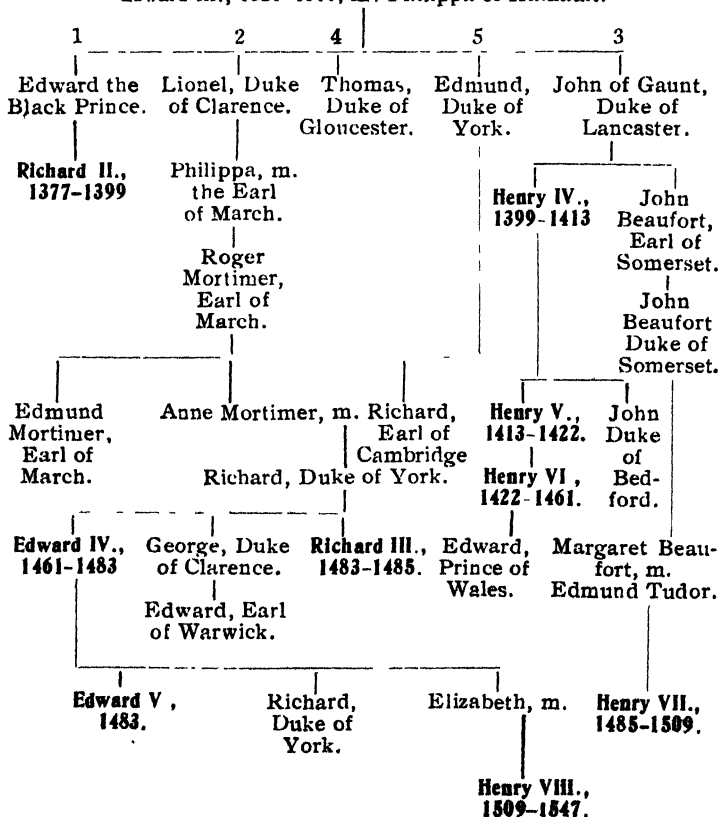
3. How did Richard II. offend Henry of Lancaster? Under what circumstances was he deposed?

4. Tell what you know of the 14th century England under the following heads:—

(a) The Parliament. (b) Warfare. (c) Villeinage.

GENEALOGY OF THE DESCENDANTS OF EDWARD III. TO SHOW THE CLAIMS OF YORK AND LANCASTER TO THE THRONE

Edward III., 1327–1377, m. Philippa of Hainault.



BOOK IV

THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK 1399-1485

CHAPTER XVII

Henry IV., 1399-1413

[Married (1) Mary Bohun, (2) Joan of Navarre]

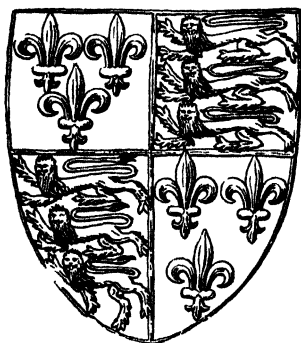
Principal Dates :

- 1399 Accession of Henry IV.
- 1401 Statute for the Burning of Heretics.
- 1403. Battle of Shrewsbury.
- 1413. Death of Henry IV.

1. Henry IV. was not the nearest heir. His father, John of Gaunt, was Edward III.'s third son, and, though Richard II. had no children, there was still alive a great-grandson of *Lionel, Duke of Clarence*, the second son of Edward III. This was *Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March*. Through his grandmother, Clarence's daughter, he inherited the best claim by birth to the throne. Through his father he inherited estates in the west country, which, since the days of his ancestor, Roger Mortimer the traitor, had belonged to the Earls of March. Richard II. had recognised the earl's father as his heir, but after Richard's deposition no one paid attention to this. For every one felt that the throne was not bound to descend, like a piece of land, to the nearest heir by blood. Up to Norman times the English used to elect their kings; and though they generally chose a near kinsman of the last king,

**Henry IV.'s
claim to the
throne**

they did not by any means always select his legal heir. In later days, though the form of election had passed away, some right of choice remained to Parliament. As a rule, it was found best to let the throne go by hereditary succession. But this had not always been done. Accordingly Parliament was within its rights in recognising Henry as king. This should prevent us calling the House of Lancaster, which began with



ROYAL ARMS AS BORNE BY HENRY IV. AFTER ABOUT 1408,
AND BY SUCCESSIVE SOVEREIGNS DOWN TO 1603

Henry IV., a race of usurpers. But we should remember that, like our present royal house, they ruled through what is called a *parliamentary title*, that is to say, because Parliament had declared them to be kings, and not because they were the nearest by blood to the previous reigning family.

2. Henry IV., owing his throne to Parliament, was compelled to pay more attention to its wishes than Richard II. or even Edward III. had done. His son and grandson were also obliged to follow the will of Parliament for the same reason. The result of this was that during the Lancastrian period Parliament had more power than it had ever had before. This

**Constitutional rule :
The advance
of Parliament**

period was therefore a time of *constitutional monarchy*. In throwing off the despotic rule of Richard II., the English people took good care to prevent his successors following his example.

3. Another result of Lancastrian rule was the fall of the Lollards. Wycliffe had long been dead, but his followers were still strong. Henry IV. was a great friend of the Church. The bishops who had helped to win him his throne felt so afraid of the Lollards that they called upon him to put them down. Many of the Lollards were good and earnest men. They taught a very strange and novel doctrine, which seemed to most pious folk to be dangerous heresy. In those days it was thought the duty of the Government to put down all wrong opinions about religion, and most men agreed that the Lollards held unsound views. Parliament therefore passed, in 1401, an Act ordering that all heretics should be burned to death. Many Lollards suffered under this law, and gradually their teaching died away before the fires of persecution. This shows that the Lollards were only a small part of the nation. One cannot by persecution stamp out a view that most people hold.

The persecution of the Lollards

4. Henry had been honourable, religious, and high-minded, a good soldier, and a sound statesman. But he did some evil things in his efforts to win and maintain the throne, and the guilt of Richard's blood lay heavy on his soul. Parliament limited his power. The French made successful war against him. The friends of the murdered king plotted his death. The nobles who had done most to make him king deserted him, because he would not give them enough power. Among these was the great northern house of Percy, whose heads were Henry Percy, Earl of Northumberland, and his son Henry commonly called *Hotspur*, by reason of his rash

The revolts of the Percies and Owen Glendower

valour. In 1403 they raised a rebellion, and agreed to join hands with a bold and able Welshman, *Owen Glendower*, who had already led all Wales to revolt against Henry, and was striving to make himself an independent Prince of Wales. Accordingly the Percies marched to the Welsh border to meet Owen. Luckily, however, for Henry, the Welsh chieftain was busy in South Wales and did not appear. The king now came up with an army and defeated the Percies at the *Battle of Shrewsbury*, where Hotspur was killed. Nevertheless old Northumberland rose in revolt once more, and continued to give Henry trouble until he too was slain in another battle. Owen held out in Wales for the rest of Henry's reign, but his power, once so great, gradually grew less, until at last he lost nearly all his followers. But Owen managed to avoid surrender and died a free man on his hills. Long before this, however, Henry IV. had broken the back of the difficulties that beset him. But he was worn out in the struggle, and after years of ill-health, grown old before his time, he died in 1413.

QUESTIONS

1. What right had Henry IV to the throne? What is meant by the statement: The Lancastrians ruled through what is called a parliamentary title?
2. How do you account for the growth of the power of the Parliament?
3. Tell what had become of the Lollards.
4. Who were the Percies and Owen Glendower? Tell how they gave trouble to Henry IV. How did Henry IV. overcome the trouble?

CHAPTER XVIII

Henry V., 1413-1422

(Married Catharine of France)

Principal Dates :

- 1413. Accession of Henry V.
- 1415. Battle of Agincourt.
- 1420. Treaty of Troyes.
- 1422. Death of Henry V.

1. The next king, Henry V., was the eldest son of Henry IV. Many stories have been told about the wild life which he had led when he was Prince of Wales. But though there may be some truth in them, he had also from his earliest manhood been well trained both in war and politics. As a mere boy he had fought against Owen Glendower. When his father's health broke down he had helped to govern his kingdom, and had perhaps shown rather too much eagerness to step into his place. No one now disputed his title, and he was therefore able to rule much more firmly than his father. He was a splendid soldier, a popular and wise statesman, and a much better man than the tales told of his youth would have led one to expect. But he was always rather cold and unsympathetic. He had a wonderful power of believing that whatever he wished to do was right; but right or wrong, whatever he set his hand to do, he did with all his might.

Character of Henry V.

2. Henry was greedy for military glory, and was tempted to renew Edward III.'s claim to the throne of France. The French annoyed Henry and his father by their friendship for Richard. Moreover ~~Charles VI.~~, VI.,

Henry V.

King of France, had gone out of his mind, and France had been reduced to a wretched state through the quarrels of her nobles with each other. By this time Frenchmen and Englishmen hated each other so much that neither side cared much for the reason why they were fighting, so long as they had a chance of coming to blows.

**Henry
renews the
Hundred
Years' War**



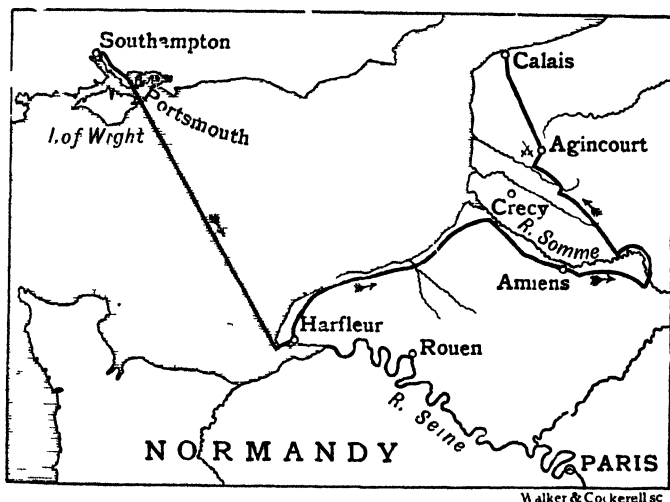
HENRY V.

(From a Painting in the National Portrait Gallery)

3. In 1415 Henry crossed over to Normandy and took *Harfleur*, then the chief port at the mouth of the Seine. The siege was long and severe, and Henry lost more soldiers through sickness than from the weapons of the enemy. After its capture Henry could only march through Normandy towards Calais. His movements were very

**The Battle of
Agincourt**

like those of Edward III. in 1346. Like his great-grandfather, he was pursued by a French army, far outnumbering his own. Again, like Edward, he was forced to fight a battle to cover his retreat. Finding that the French army had got between him and Calais, he prepared to meet their attack on 25th October at



HENRY V.'S CAMPAIGN IN 1415

Agincourt, not very far from Crecy. It was Crecy over again. The English fought on foot, and set up palisades of long stakes to protect the archers. The French men-at-arms also dismounted. But they long hesitated to make the expected onslaught. At last Henry ordered his archers to shift their stakes forwards and provoked an attack. The enemy was forced to charge, but the archers shot down so many that their whole line was thrown into confusion. The dismounted English men-at-arms now advanced, and before long

the whole French army was fleeing in panic from the field. Seldom was so great a victory won with so little loss. But the English army was so weak that all it could do was to complete its march to Calais.

4. Two years later Henry led another expedition to Normandy, and set to work to conquer that country bit by bit. He made rapid progress, and at last captured Rouen, the capital. But the French nobles continued their quarrels. At last *John, Duke of Burgundy*, the leader of one of the French factions, was treacherously murdered in the presence of *Charles the Dauphin*, eldest son of the mad king, and the chief of the other French party. Eager to revenge his father's death, *Philip*, the new Duke of Burgundy, made an alliance with the English. Henry was already strong when he was dependent only on his sturdy English soldiers. But his alliance with Burgundy, whose party was the strongest in France, made him irresistible. In 1420 the French were forced to make the *Treaty of Troyes* by which Henry married Catharine, the daughter of Charles VI., and was recognised as the successor of his father-in-law at his death, and regent for the rest of his life. The result of this was that most of the north of France submitted to the united English and Burgundian power. But Charles the Dauphin held out in the south against the treaty which took away from him his inheritance.

5. There was still hard fighting to be done, and Henry accordingly led a third expedition to France. In the course of this he was suddenly cut off in 1422 when only thirty-five years of age. His mad father-in-law died within two months. Thus it was that Henry's infant son, Henry VI., succeeded, before he was a year old, to the two kingdoms of England and France.

**The murder
of Burgundy,
and the
Treaty of
Troyes**

**Death of
Henry V.**

QUESTIONS

1. Mention the essential points in the character of Henry V. Why did he renew the Hundred Years' War?
2. Tell what you know of the Battle of Agincourt. How do you account for the English victory?
3. What were the terms of the treaty of Troyes?

CHAPTER XIX

Henry VI., 1422-1461

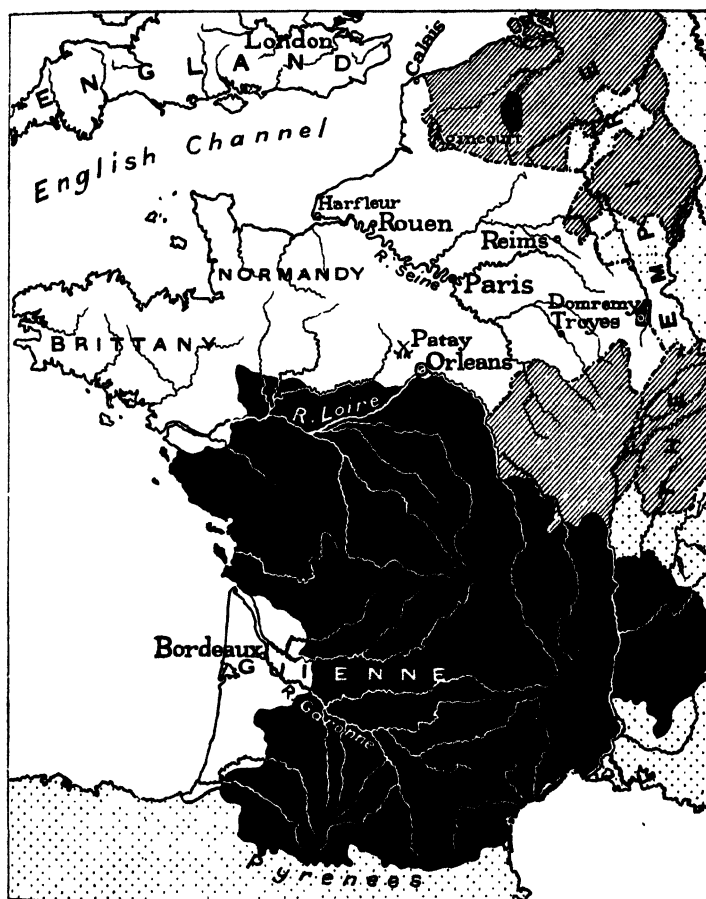
(Married Margaret of Anjou)

Principal Dates :

- 1422. Accession of Henry VI.
- 1429. Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans.
- 1435. Death of Bedford, and end of the alliance of England and Burgundy.
- 1453. England loses Gascony.
- 1455. Battle of St. Albans.
- 1460. Battle of Wakefield.
- 1461. Deposition of Henry VI., and Battle of Towton.

1. It was a lucky thing for the little Henry VI. that the government of both England and France, during the first years of his reign, fell to his uncle, *John, Duke of Bedford*, a younger son of Henry IV. Bedford did all that was possible to uphold the English power abroad and to keep on good terms with Duke Philip of Burgundy, upon whose support his hopes to make his nephew a real king of France depended. But it was unlikely that Frenchmen should consent to be ruled by a foreign king, and it was a bad thing for the English themselves to attempt to conquer a great and proud nation like the French. But faction hopelessly split up the French into rival parties, and the support which many Frenchmen gave to Henry made Bedford's task seem less desperate than it really was. Nearly all North France and Paris itself acknowledged King Henry, though even here,

The Regent Bedford upholds the English cause in France



English Territory.
 French.
 Burgundian.
 Battlefields.

Territory other than French, British, or Burgundian.

THE ENGLISH KING'S DOMINIONS IN FRANCE IN 1429
(After the Treaty of Troyes)

there was still much fighting. Bedford won victories which showed that the English were still better soldiers than the French. But he was not strong enough to rule the country that he conquered. North France gradually fell into a terrible condition of weakness and misery.

2. South of the Loire, Charles the Dauphin was recognised as *Charles VII.* by all save the Gascons, who were ever faithful to their English dukes.

**The Siege
of Orleans**

The new king was idle, careless, and faithless, but remained strong enough to hold his own, though his dominions fell into as wretched a state as the north. At last, in 1429, Bedford took a fresh step in advance. He besieged the important town of *Orleans*, which commanded one of the few bridges which in those days spanned the broad river Loire. Orleans was soon hard pressed, and if it fell, the road to the south stood open.

3. At this moment of the worst troubles of France, there occurred one of the most wonderful things in history. One day there came to King

**The mission
of Joan of
Arc**

Charles's court a simple country girl named *Joan Darc*, or as the English called her, *Joan of Arc*. While watching her sheep near her home at Domrémi, on the banks of the Meuse, she had pondered long over the evils which the war had brought upon her country. At last, as she firmly believed, God revealed Himself to her in visions and bade her undertake the work of saving France from the foreigner and restoring the blessings of peace. When she first told of her visions, every one mocked at her, but before long her faith and earnestness prevailed. She was sent right through central France to the king's court on the Loire. 'The King of Heaven,' said she to Charles, 'bids me tell you that you shall be anointed and crowned in the city of Reims, and that you shall be deputy of the King of Heaven, who is

also King of France.' The careless king had little faith in her words, but things were so desperate that he let her do what she would. She donned armour like a man, had a sacred banner made for her, and rode at the head of a force to help the garrison of Orleans.

4. Joan fought her way into the town and filled the famine-stricken soldiers with a new hope. She bade the English leave the land and recognise Charles as king. Ere long she drove the English from the walls of Orleans, and soon after won a pitched battle over them in the open field at *Patay*. So many English victories had been won that the French themselves had a belief that they were bound to be beaten if they ventured upon a regular battle. But the Maid of Orleans, as Joan was now called, changed all that. She broke the long tide of disaster, and made Frenchmen again have faith in themselves and their country.

The relief of Orleans, and the Battle of Patay

5. Joan now fulfilled her promise by leading Charles through the heart of the enemy's country to *Reims*. Here he was crowned and anointed with the holy oil which, as was believed, had been sent down from heaven for the coronation of the first Christian king of the French. After this ceremony Charles retired beyond the Loire.

Coronation of Charles VII.

6. The first stage of Joan's work had now been accomplished. But she did not regard her mission as completed until she had driven the English out of France. She therefore still remained with the army. But success had made her over-confident, and fortune soon turned against her. At last she fell into the hands of the enemy, who, in 1431, burnt her as a witch at Rouen. She had done such wonderful things that the English, no less than the French, believed that there was something supernatural about her. But while the French believed

The martyrdom of Joan

that she was a maid sent from God, her enemies professed that she was inspired by the devil. She made such a pathetic end that the English themselves were convinced of her nobility of purpose. 'We are undone,' said they, 'for this maid whom we have burned is a saint indeed.' The English treated Joan cruelly enough, but it is only fair to say that the priests and lawyers who did her to death were Frenchmen of the Burgundian party.

7. The maid's work outlasted her martyrdom. The whole French people was now on the side of Charles.

The fall of the English power in France, and the end of the Hundred Years' War Bedford struggled nobly to maintain the English power, but died in 1435. Burgundy made peace with Charles, and Paris opened its gates to the national king. It was in vain that the English tried to keep Normandy and Gascony by accepting a truce and agreeing to their young king's marriage with *Margaret of Anjou*, the

niece of Charles VII. In a few years the French renewed the war, and easily drove the English out of Normandy. At last they fell on Gascony itself, which, in 1453, finally passed to Charles's hands. After the loss of this last remnant of the inheritance of Eleanor of Aquitaine, Calais alone remained to the English king in France. Thanks to Joan, France was once more a nation.

8. During Henry VI.'s long minority things went very badly in England. The nobles quarrelled bitterly with each other, and Council and Parliament could not restrain them. Nor did matters get better when Henry grew up. He was good, intelligent, pious, and meek, but he was not strong enough, either in mind or body, to rule England. His wife, Margaret of Anjou, had the vigour and courage, which he lacked, but she was unpopular as a Frenchwoman. She

England during Henry VI.'s reign

thought more of helping her own friends than of doing her best for her adopted country. Englishmen grew indignant when Normandy and Gascony were lost, and accused the king and his ministers of treachery. The men of Kent, as restless as in Wat Tyler's days, rose in revolt under *Jack Cade*. Cade captured London,



HENRY VI.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery)

and was driven out and subdued only with great difficulty.

9. England had now fallen into the condition of France in the days of the mad Charles VI. The king was no longer a real ruler, and the nobles fought with each other as they pleased. In despair of Henry, men

turned to his cousin *Richard, Duke of York*, the heir of Lionel of Clarence, Edward III.'s second son, and the representative of the great house of the earls of March. By birth York had a nearer claim to the throne than Henry. But there was no thought of making him king. It was hoped that he would drive away the queen's favourites and help Henry to rule more firmly. In 1453 the king went mad for a time, and it seemed a good way of settling matters to make York *Protector of the Realm*. This meant that York, without the name of king, did the king's work. Unluckily for the nation, Henry VI. got better, and once more went back to his old advisers.

**The
Protectorate
of Richard,
Duke of
York**

10. York's protectorate was ended, but before long he raised an army and tried to seize the government by force. In 1455 he won the *Battle of St. Albans*, and took Henry prisoner. With this battle begin the *Wars of the Roses*, so called in later days because the House of York had a white rose as its badge and the House of Lancaster was thought to have a red rose. These wars lasted for thirty years. It was not, however, a period of continued fighting, but of short wars, divided by longer periods of weak government.

**Beginning of
the Wars of
the Roses**

11. Before long, York claimed to be king by descent from the elder son of Edward III. The meek Henry did little to resist him, but Margaret fought like a tigress on behalf of her husband and of her only son, *Edward, Prince of Wales*. At last, in 1460, she defeated and slew York at the battle of *Wakefield*. Her triumph was, however, but a short one. York's eldest son, *Edward, Earl of March*, now Duke of York by his father's death, soon avenged the massacre at Wakefield. He took possession of London, and proclaimed himself Edward IV. Henry and Margaret fled to the north,

**Deposition
of Henry VI.**



where the Lancastrians were strongest. Edward soon followed them. On Palm Sunday, 1461, the Yorkists won the crowning victory of the war at *Towton*, a few miles south of York. This secured the throne for Edward of York. Margaret fled to Scotland, and finally took ship for France. Henry hid himself away among the faithful peasants of Ribblesdale. At last, however, he was discovered and imprisoned in the Tower of London.

QUESTIONS

1. Who ruled in the name of Henry VI.? How did he uphold the English power in France?
2. Who was Joan of Arc? What were her visions? Why was she known as the Maid of Orleans? What was her fate? What became ultimately of the English power in France?
3. What was the condition of England during Henry's minority? Who was Jack Cade?
4. Who was Richard, Duke of York? Why was his help sought by the people? What claim had he to the throne?
5. Why were the wars of the Roses so called? What causes brought about the wars? What was the crowning victory of Edward of York? Draw a map of England marking thereon the chief battles fought.

CHAPTER XX

The House of York, 1461-1485

EDWARD IV., 1461-1483, m. Elizabeth Woodville.

HENRY VI. restored, 1470-1471.

EDWARD V., 1483.

RICHARD III. 1483-1485, m. Anne Neville.

Principal Dates :

1461. Accession of Edward IV.

1470. Restoration of Henry VI.

1471. Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury, and Restoration of Edward IV.

1483. Reign of Edward V.

1483. Richard III. deposes Edward V.

1485. Richard III. slain at Bosworth.

1. Edward IV. claimed to be king as the nearest heir of Edward III., and looked upon his cousin Henry as a usurper. Yet few cared a straw whether Edward or Henry was the rightful heir. Edward won the throne because he was the wiser man and better soldier. His victory at Towton was his real claim to rule, and most Englishmen were glad to have him as king, because they hoped that he would govern the country better than his cousin had done. Those who regretted Henry most were the fierce barons of the north and west, who had profited by his weakness to build up their own power. The townsman, the trader and the artisan, the whole of the south and east, then the richest parts of the country, were in favour of Edward. The Londoners were enthusiastic on his side. Some of the greatest nobles were also

**Why
Edward IV.
became
king**

among Edward's supporters. Foremost among these was the House of *Neville*, whose chief Richard, Earl of Warwick, did so much to secure him the throne, that he was called the *King-Maker*. Warwick had enormous estates all over the country, and could raise



EDWARD IV.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery)

an army among his own tenants. He had done even more for Edward than the Percies had done for Henry IV., and as in the case of the Percies, the overweening power of the Nevilles was the most immediate danger before the new king.

2. Edward and Warwick soon began to quarrel. Warwick wanted Edward to make peace with France and wed a French queen, but Edward fell in love with a beautiful young widow named *Elizabeth Woodville*, and married her despite Warwick's advice. The

**Quarrel of
Edward IV.
and War-
wick**

brothers, sons, and other kinsmen of the queen soon formed a little party, bitterly hostile to Warwick, and entirely trusted by Edward. In revenge, Warwick married his daughter to Edward's brother *George, Duke of Clarence*, and tried to set up his son-in-law against the king. These new factions soon led to renewed fighting. For the moment Edward got the upper hand. In 1470, Warwick and Clarence fled to France. There they met Margaret of Anjou, and made friends with their old enemy. It was agreed that an attempt should be made to drive Edward from the throne.

3. Warwick soon landed in England. So many now flocked to his camp that Edward, unable even to make a fight, fled to the Netherlands. Warwick marched to London, took Henry VI. out of the Tower, and restored him to the throne. For a second time Warwick had deserved his title of King-Maker. He was now monarch in all but name, for Henry's weak wits had been shattered by his misfortunes, and he was, we are told, 'more like a sack of wool than a crowned king'.

**The res-
toration of
Henry VI.**

4. In 1471, less than six months after his flight, Edward IV. came back to England. His partisans rallied to his cause, and he marched to London, where he received a royal welcome. He took Henry VI. prisoner once more, and then went out to meet Warwick.

**Edward IV.
recovers the
throne**

On Easter Sunday, 1471, Edward and Warwick fought out their quarrel at *Barnet*, ten miles north of London. The wretched Clarence deserted his father-in-law, and

Warwick himself was killed. About the same time Margaret of Anjou, and her son *Edward, Prince of Wales*, who had till now stayed in France, landed in the south of England. Edward IV. defeated them at *Tewkesbury*, where the Avon runs into the Severn. Margaret and the little Prince of Wales were taken prisoners. The prince was brutally slain, but Margaret was finally sent back to France. Edward returned in triumph to London, and on the very same day Henry VI. was murdered in the Tower. Of all the ruthless deeds of this cruel time, the slaying of this gentle and saintly king was the worst. It was believed that both Henry and his son had been done to death by the hand of *Richard, Duke of Gloucester*, Edward's youngest brother.

5. Edward IV. reigned without a rival for the rest of his life. At first he took his brother Clarence back to favour, but after a few years he shut him up in the Tower and privately put him to death. For the rest of his reign Edward ruled in peace. He was popular with the people because he kept the nobles in good order, and because he was genial, hearty, and friendly to the gentry and merchants. In one way he governed very differently from the Lancastrians. He cared little for Parliaments, and summoned them seldom. When he wanted money, he did not always go to Parliament, but often asked his subjects to give him what he called a *benevolence*. This was supposed to be a gift offered freely to the king, but in reality every one had to pay it. In 1483 Edward died when still a young man.

6. Edward IV. left two young sons, *Edward, Prince of Wales*, and *Richard, Duke of York*. The elder of these was now proclaimed Edward V. But the children were under the care of their mother, Elizabeth Woodville, and it was likely that she and her kinsmen would now have it

**The last
years of
Edward IV.**

**The reign of
Edward V.**

all their own way. The great nobles, foremost among whom was the *Duke of Buckingham*, hated the queen's upstart relations. They now felt that they must strike at once, or an intolerable yoke would be thrust upon them. They found an ally in Richard of Gloucester, who was eager to supplant his nephews and win the throne. At first Gloucester got himself named *Protector*. He then drove the queen's kinsmen from power, and took away from her the custody of her children, whom he shut up in the Tower.

7. A few weeks later Gloucester spread a report that Elizabeth Woodville had never been lawfully married to his brother, and that the two princes therefore had no right to reign. Buckingham made a speech to the citizens of London, in which he declared the rumour to be true, and urged that Richard should himself be recognised as king. The Londoners threw up their caps in the air and cried 'King Richard! King Richard'. At once they went to the duke and begged him to become king. After a show of hesitation he gave his consent. Next day he was proclaimed Richard III. Nothing more was heard of his nephews, and most people believed that he murdered them in the Tower. But so secretly was the deed done that some men thought that the two boys had escaped and were kept somewhere in hiding, waiting for better times. But Richard's cruelty overshot the mark. He had been recognised as king for much the same reasons as those which had caused Edward IV. to be accepted. A strong, wise, and experienced man was likely to be a more useful ruler than a boy. But fierce and hard as were the English of those days, they grew disgusted with Richard. He was already suspected as having murdered Henry VI. and Henry's son. This new guilt soon began to tell heavily against him. Yet it is rather hard on Richard that he should have had such a bad

**Richard III.
drives his
nephews
from the
throne**

reputation in history. After all, he was no whit worse than his brother Edward.



RICHARD III.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery)

8. Richard III. tried to make himself popular by passing good laws, and in particular by abolishing *benevolences*, by which Edward IV. had raised so much money without asking Parliament for it. But he never had a fair chance of showing what sort of king he would make. His ally, Buckingham, thought that he was not sufficiently rewarded for his services, and rose in revolt. But Buckingham had not enough wisdom

**Richard III.
tries to make
himself
popular**

to play the part of a King-Maker. Richard easily overpowered him, and struck off his head.

9. Richard had soon to meet a more dangerous enemy. After the murder of Henry VI. and his son, the House of Lancaster had almost died out. But there was still left a representative of John of Gaunt in *Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond*. On his father's side, Henry Tudor sprang from a family of Welsh gentlemen of no high rank.

The invasion of Henry Tudor, and the death of Richard III. at Bosworth

But his mother, *Lady Margaret Beaufort*, was the heiress of a family called the Beauforts, who were descended from the children of John of Gaunt by a second marriage. Accordingly Henry of Richmond was looked up to as a possible Lancastrian leader, and now that the Yorkist faction was divided, the chance of Lancaster was again come. Henry had long been living in exile. He now landed in Milford Haven at the head of a little army, and received a rapturous welcome from his Welsh fellow-countrymen. He soon gathered an army and won a battle at *Bosworth* in Leicestershire, where Richard lost his life. His crown was picked up on the field, and, after the battle, was put on Henry's head. The Lancastrian exile was henceforth King Henry VII.

ENGLAND IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY

10. Despite the fierce fighting that had lasted so long, England did not stand still. Life was less heroic and noble than it had been in the days of Edward I. The Church had decayed, art and scholarship had become more dull and commonplace, and statesmen seem to have grown more greedy and selfish. Nevertheless, life became more tolerable for the ordinary man. Even when the nobles were fighting one against the other, he managed to till his farm or sell his goods in peace.

Social and economic conditions

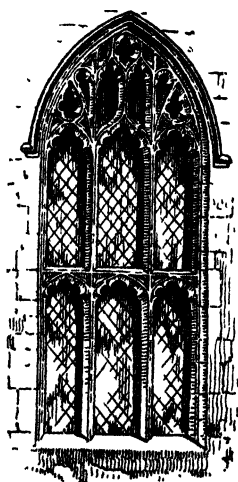
The landlords grew rich with the increase of the wool trade. The business men in the towns profited by the growth of foreign commerce, though this as yet was but in its beginnings. When Edward IV. and Henry VII. brought back strong government, progress became rapid.

11. The prosperity of the towns was shown by the large number of parish churches rebuilt on a larger scale in the *Perpendicular* style. This style, like the age that produced it, is not so original or pure as that which inspired the churches of Henry III. or Edward I.'s time, but it is very rich, impressive, and magnificent.

Private houses were now built in a more durable and comfortable fashion. Even the warlike nobles gave up erecting gloomy castles in which to live, and set up instead large, well-lighted, and roomy mansions. These buildings were strong enough to stand a siege, but were built with a view to the comfort of those who always lived in them rather than to keep out the enemy. A magnificent specimen of this type is shown in the next page in the picture of *Tattershall Castle*, Lincolnshire, built by one of Henry VI.'s ministers. *Tattershall* is also remarkable as one of the earliest brick buildings in England.

12. *Gunpowder* had been used for warfare during the days of Edward III. The earliest muskets were very heavy and clumsy, and in battle men still preferred to trust to bows and arrows. But large cannon were

Perpendicular architecture



PERPENDICULAR WINDOW,
HEADCORN, KENT

already cast that could batter down strong walls and castles, impregnable except by famine in an earlier age. Armour became more heavy, costly, and elaborate.



TATTERSHALL CASTLE, LINCOLNSHIRE. Built between 1433 and 1455

Instead of the *chain mail* of earlier days, knights from Edward III.'s time onwards wore what is called *plate* armour. This consisted of solid plates of steel, buckled or rivetted together, and cleverly fashioned so as to

ward off blows, or turn aside arrows and bullets. But plate armour was complicated, heavy, and costly. It gradually became of little use, as firearms grew so effective that they could send bullets through any plate of iron or steel that the soldier was strong enough to bear.

Nevertheless, armour was retained, and remained very elaborate until long after this period.

13. The changes in building and in the art of war foreshadowed still more important movements. The period of history called the *Middle Ages* was slowly dying

**The fall of Constantinople ;
The end of the Middle Ages**

away, and we are now on the threshold of modern times. It was an age of discoveries, of new inventions, of greater knowledge, and a wider interest in man and nature. One among many causes of this awakening was the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453. Greek scholars fled from the city with their books to Italy and with their coming a new

interest arose in the great days of Greece and Rome. Men again learnt Greek that they might read the ancient writers in the original. This movement is called the *Revival of Letters*, or the *Renaissance*, that is, the new birth of learning and thought.



RICHARD BRAUCHAMP, EARL OF WARWICK (DIED 1439).
(From a Monument in the Lady Chapel, St. Mary's Church, Warwick)

None of these new movements had as yet begun to affect England very much, but already, and especially in Italy, there was wonderful progress being made in many directions. And even in England some men began to be interested in the new movements. From the dying Middle Ages the Modern World was slowly growing.

14. One of the great inventions of these times was the discovery of *Printing*. Up to the middle of the fifteenth century the only way of multiplying books was to copy them out laboriously by hand. But so many people now wanted to read, that they grew impatient at the slowness with which *manuscripts* or hand-written books were written out, and the high price which they cost. At last some shrewd Germans discovered a way of printing books by movable types, so that a large number of impressions could be taken from the same type. The result was that the price of books was suddenly cheapened, and a great stimulus was given to reading and study. In Edward IV.'s time printing was brought into England by *William Caxton*. Having learnt the art abroad, he set up a press under the shadow of Westminster Abbey, from which he produced a large number of useful and beautiful books. Before long reading became much more common, and men who read soon got into the way of thinking for themselves. When men began to think for themselves, modern times were already at hand.

**The inven-
tion of
Printing**

**William
Caxton**

15. A great change was coming over men's knowledge of the world. The old trade routes to India overland were now very dangerous owing to the Turkish conquests, and men began to seek new ways to the East. With the help of old maps and the study of ancient geographers, men began again to speculate as to the

**Voyages of
Vasco de
Gama and
Columbus**

shape of the world, and to think that they might reach India by sailing westward round the globe. The Portuguese however determined to try and find a way round Africa. After many years of brave endeavour, in 1487, *Bartolomew Diaz* rounded the Cape of Storms and returned in fear to his master. But the king of Portugal recognised the importance of the discovery and renamed it the Cape of Good Hope. In 1497 he sent out *Vasco de Gama*, who succeeded next year in reaching Calicut. Thus direct trade by sea was opened up between India and Portugal; the Dutch soon followed and then the English. Meanwhile the Spaniards were seeking a westward route. In 1492 a young Italian, Christopher Columbus, in Spanish service, reached the West Indies. He made three other voyages of discovery, and died in the firm belief that he had opened a westward route to India. He had done something far greater, for he had discovered a new world. For several years the Spaniards were left to exploit the West Indies and South America without European rivals.

QUESTIONS

1. What claim had Edward IV. to the throne? Why was he preferred to Henry VI.?
2. Who was the Earl of Warwick? Tell why he was called the King-Maker. Why did Edward and Warwick quarrel?
3. Under what circumstances did Edward IV. lose the throne? How did he recover it?
4. In what respects did Edward IV. differ from the Lancastrians as ruler? Why was he liked by the people? How did he raise money?
5. By whom was Edward V. deposed? Who helped him and what means did he adopt to secure the throne?

6. What sort of a man was Richard III.? How did he try to make himself popular? What became of his ally, the Duke of Buckingham?

7. Who was Henry Tudor? How was he connected with the House of Lancaster? Tell how he won the throne.

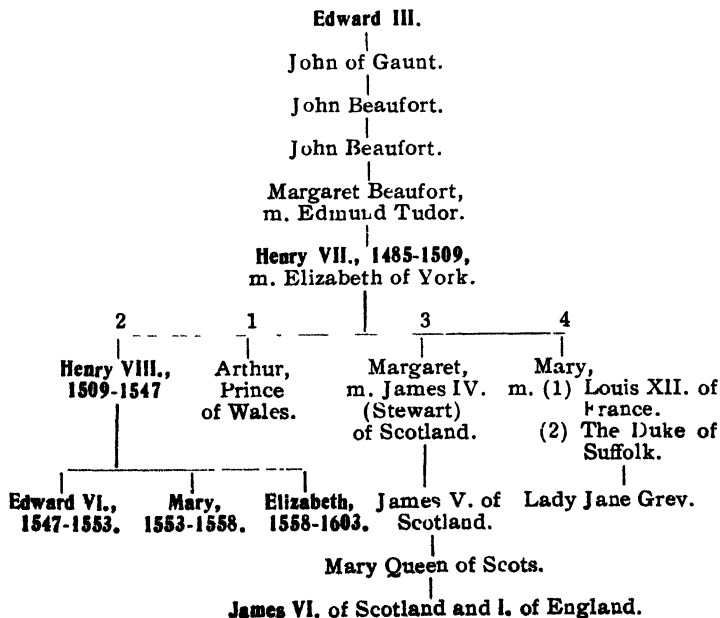
8. Mention some of the characteristics of the Modern times in the history of England.

9. What is meant by the Renaissance? What was its effect on England?

10. Who was Caxton? What was his work? Tell how the people were benefited by it.

11. Who were Vasco de Gama and Columbus? What were the discoveries made by them?

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR



BOOK V

THE HOUSE OF TUDOR, 1485-1603

CHAPTER XXI

Henry VII., 1485-1509

(Married Elizabeth of York)

Principal Dates :

- 1485. Accession of Henry VII.
- 1487. Lambert Simnel's imposture.
- 1497. Capture of Perkin Warbeck.
- 1503. Marriage of James IV. and Margaret Tudor.
- 1509. Death of Henry VII.

1. Like Henry IV., Henry VII. found it was hard to maintain the throne that he had won so easily. A silent, reserved, cold, and selfish man, he never shone like the free-handed Edward IV. or the brilliant Richard III. But he was prudent, frugal, painstaking, and seldom wantonly cruel. He saw that England would never be prosperous again until the factions of York and Lancaster were ended. He wished to be king of the whole nation, and not merely king of a party. With this object he married *Elizabeth of York*, the daughter of Edward IV. After her brothers' disappearance, Elizabeth became, according to Yorkist notions, heir to the throne. By this match Henry hoped to conciliate the Yorkists as well as his own Lancastrian friends. If he himself were not lawful heir,

**Henry VII.'s
character
and claims
to the
throne**

his children would be as much recognised by Yorkists as Lancastrians. Things happened exactly as Henry had foreseen. His son Henry VIII. was honoured by all as England's rightful king.



HENRY VII.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery)

2. The Yorkists had now no leaders. Their head was Henry's wife, and the next heir, the *Earl of Warwick*, a son of the murdered Clarence, was a close prisoner in the Tower. Having no real prince in whose name they could fight, the Yorkists set up an impostor. A pretty boy, about twelve years old, was taken to Ireland, where the Yorkists were strong. It was given out that

**Yorkist plots
and
pretenders**

he was the Earl of Warwick, who, it was said, had escaped from the Tower. In reality he was *Lambert Simnel*, a poor man's son from Oxford. In 1487 the Yorkists in Ireland crowned him as king in Dublin, and soon sent him over to England to try his fortune there. Meanwhile Henry took the real Warwick from



QUEEN ELIZABETH, WIFE OF HENRY VII.

(From a painting in the National Portrait Gallery)

prison and showed him to the Londoners, that all men might know that the youth from Ireland was a cheat. The king defeated the invader and showed his contempt by pardoning Simnel and making him a turnspit in the royal kitchen.

3. Soon after a more formidable impostor arose in *Perkin Warbeck*, a bright, attractive young man from Tournai in the Netherlands. He gave out that he was

Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the princes supposed to have been murdered in the Tower. So well did he play his part that many believed in him. Like Simnel he first went to Ireland, where he won a large following and was acknowledged by Henry's foreign enemies, the French and the Scots. But Henry persuaded them to cease supporting him. In 1497 Perkin landed in Cornwall, where the people had a little time before risen in revolt against Henry's grievous taxes. Many Cornishmen followed him, but when the king's forces came down, Perkin hid in a monastery, hoping that the Church would protect him. The Cornishmen went back to their homes. Warbeck soon gave himself up to the king, who promised to spare his life. He was imprisoned in the Tower, where he made friends with the captive Warwick. Some time later both were put to death on the charge of having formed a plot to seize the Tower and upset the king's throne. With them the Yorkist party came to an end. The Wars of the Roses were at last over.

**Imposture of
Perkin
Warbeck**

4. Henry had now put down his enemies at home, and bought off his enemies abroad. He strove by prudent marriages to make his position still more secure. The greatest princes in Europe in those days were *Ferdinand, King of Aragon*, and *Isabella, Queen of Castile*. They had by marrying each other joined their kingdoms together to form the united kingdom of Spain. Henry sought to get Ferdinand and Isabella on his side, by faithfully following their wishes and by marrying his eldest son, *Arthur, Prince of Wales*, to their youngest daughter, *Catharine of Aragon*. However, the sickly young prince died soon after the wedding. Henry was anxious not to lose the advantages of the Spanish match, so he proposed that Catharine should marry his younger son, the future *Henry VIII*.

**Henry VII.'s
Spanish
alliance**

who was now made Prince of Wales. The marriage of a man with his brother's widow was against the law of the Church, but the Pope gave a special licence or *dispensation*, allowing the union in this particular case. Later on, great trouble arose from this match. For the moment, however, Henry got what he most wanted. Catharine stayed in England, and her father remained good friends with Henry.

5. Since the days of Edward III. Scotland had remained an independent nation, closely allied to France, and bitterly hostile to England. The weakness of England under York and Lancaster had allowed Scotland to become more powerful and prosperous. It was now ruled by kings of the *House of Stewart*, the first of whom, Robert II., became king in 1371. He owed his throne to his father's marriage with Margaret, the daughter and heiress of Robert Bruce. *James IV.*, *Stewart*, was now King of Scots, and in 1503 Henry VII. gave him his eldest daughter, Margaret, in marriage. Henry hoped through this match to break down the old alliance between the Scots and the French, and make the English and Scots better friends. Great things were expected from this match, and great things came at last, for just a hundred years later the great-grandson of James and Margaret joined together England and Scotland under his rule. But it was long before the English and Scots forgot their ancient enmity, and James IV. soon went back to the French alliance.

6. Henry VII. set steadily to work to build up the royal power. Lancastrian though he was, he ruled after the despotic fashion of Edward IV. rather than in the constitutional way of the three Henries. He summoned few Parliaments, and did not scruple to raise money by *benevolences*, saying that the law of Richard

The marriage of Margaret Tudor and James IV. of Scotland

Henry VII. increases the royal power

against them was not a binding law since Richard was no true king. He chose wise ministers to help him, the chief of them being *Cardinal Morton*, who was both Lord Chancellor and Archbishop of Canterbury. By the help of such men Henry was able to hoard up large sums.

7. The greatest service that Henry VII. did to England was in breaking down the great power of the nobles which had helped to cause the Wars of the Roses. The nobles not only owned vast estates, and compelled their tenants to fight for them, but they allowed all men, who were willing to do so, to wear their badge or *livery*. Every man who wore the nobleman's livery felt bound to support his lord against all the world. The lord would try to save his retainers from punishment, even if the law courts passed sentences against them. Henry VII. now managed to abolish this custom. He also developed a new court called the *Star Chamber*, whose special business was to keep the nobles in order. The richest barons now learned that they must obey the law like any other man.

**The destruction of the power of the barons :
The Star Chamber**

8. Henry's policy made England quite a different country. Bit by bit men forgot their rough fighting ways, and settled down to work at their trades, knowing that the king would protect them and see that they had their rights. Thus the Tudor kings became very much more powerful than the earlier monarchs. Englishmen lost some of their freedom in return for better peace and order. But in the old days only nobles and wealthy gentlemen really had power to enjoy their liberty. Under the new system the very poorest could secure the blessings of order. Yet England had to pay a heavy price for what she obtained from the Tudors. Before long the kings found out that they

The popular Tudor despotism

could do almost what they liked, and very soon they began to do things that were by no means good for the country. At first this result was not felt, for most of the Tudors remained popular because they were good Englishmen and very like their subjects, both in their virtues and in their vices. Later on, however, the English had to endure much from their kings. It was only after a hard struggle that people were able to win back their liberty.

QUESTIONS

1. What claim had Henry VII. to the throne? How did he conciliate the Yorkists? Write a few lines about Perkin Warbeck and Lambert Simnel.
2. What steps did he take to increase the royal power?
3. How were the marriages of Catharine with Henry VIII. and of Margaret with James IV. of Scotland important?
4. What is meant by Tudor despotism? Why did the people allow the Tudor Kings to be despotic?

CHAPTER XXII

Henry VIII., 1509-1547

[Married (1) Catharine of Aragon ; (2) Anne Boleyn ; (3) Jane Seymour ; (4) Anne of Cleves ; (5) Catharine Howard ; (6) Catharine Parr.]

Principal Dates :

- 1509. Accession of Henry VIII.
- 1513. Battles of Flodden Field and the Spurs.
- 1517. Martin Luther begins the Reformation.
- 1520. Field of the Cloth of Gold.
- 1521. Henry's second War with France.
- 1529. Fall of Wolsey.
- 1534. Separation of England from Rome.
- 1535. Union of England and Wales.
- 1536. The Pilgrimage of Grace.
- 1536-9. Suppression of the monasteries.
- 1540. Fall of Cromwell.
- 1547. Death of Henry VIII.

1. When Henry VII. died, his son Henry VIII. became king at the age of eighteen. The tall, strong, handsome prince was a very different sort of man from his cold and cautious father. He loved display, and he soon scattered his father's carefully saved treasure in giving magnificent feasts and entertainments. But with all his eagerness for amusing himself, Henry VIII. worked hard at the government of his kingdom, being much fonder of power and of having his own way than of anything else in the world. He made himself popular by his pleasant hearty manner, and by seeming to wish to do what the people themselves most wanted.

**Character of
Henry VIII.**

But as time went on, Englishmen began to find out



HENRY VIII. (*From a painting by Holbein about 1536*)

that the friendly and outspoken young king was selfish,

cruel, and hard-hearted. As he grew old, Henry became more and more brutal. But even at the last he still had something grand about him. He was one of the greatest of all English kings, and with all his faults did much good to England.

2. Henry carried on his father's policy of increasing the authority of the king and of making all men, however great, obey the law. But he was not content to go on simply treading in Henry VII.'s footsteps. He wished to show that he was stronger and cleverer than his father. He desired to make it clear to Europe that England had again become a nation to be feared. His mind was filled with big schemes for extending his power, and he soon felt the need of a wise and prudent minister to help him. Such a minister he found in a young priest named *Thomas Wolsey*. The son of an Ipswich merchant, Wolsey went to the University of Oxford, where he took his degree so young that he was called 'the boy bachelor'. But he loved to get on in the world better than to remain at the university studying books. He soon found his way to court, where his ability, hard work, and desire to please attracted King Henry's fancy. Before long, Wolsey was made Lord Chancellor and Archbishop of York, and for nearly twenty years he was his master's most trusted servant. He was not in every way a good man, but he was certainly a great one. But many of the worst things he did were done by him simply to please his master. He was proud and haughty, and lived in a more expensive way than even the greatest nobles. But he was merciful and just to the poor. He built magnificent schools and colleges, believing that it would be better for the land if there were more scholars and more learning in it.

**Cardinal
Wolsey :
His career**

3. Wolsey tried to win for England a great position in Europe. During the Wars of the Roses, England

Henry VIII.

had ceased to exercise any influence on the Continent. Henry VII. had not been able to do much to restore her position. However, he made a firm alliance with Spain, which his son, who had married the Spanish king's daughter, continued. The great rival of Spain in Europe was France, now ruled by Louis XII. In 1512 Henry joined his father-in-law in war against the French.

Henry VIII.'s foreign policy



CARDINAL WOLSEY

(From an Original Miniature belonging to the
Hon. Sir Spencer Ponsonby, G.C.B.)

4. In the struggle which now followed, Henry won some notable battles. One of them against the French was called the *Battle of the Spurs*, because it was said that the French used their spurs to make their horses run away from the English, much more than they used their swords. Then Henry had to fight the Scots as well.

The Battles of the Spurs and Flodden

Though their king, James IV., was Henry VIII.'s brother-in-law, he broke from the English alliance established by his marriage, and renewed the traditional friendship between Scotland and France. But at *Flodden Field* James IV. was killed and the Scots were so badly beaten that it was long before they were strong enough to trouble Henry any more. Both these battles took place in the year 1513. Peace was made soon after.

5. Louis XII. soon died, and was succeeded by his brilliant cousin, Francis I., who reigned just as long as Henry himself. A little later, old Ferdinand of Spain died also. His place was taken by his grandson, Charles of Austria, who in 1519 became the Emperor Charles V. Charles ruled over the Netherlands and Austria as well as over Spain, and Francis I. was very jealous of him. The two princes were anxious to wage war one against the other, hoping thus to make it clear who was the first king in Europe.

The rivalry
of Francis I.
and
Charles V.

6. Francis and Charles both sought Henry's alliance. Wolsey strongly believed in the doctrine of *Balance of power*. He thought it necessary in the interest of England to prevent any of the European powers becoming so strong as to upset what was called the European Balance. He therefore persuaded Henry to maintain peace between them by threatening to join the weaker side. Henry held interviews with both Charles and Francis. His meeting with Francis took place near Calais. It was conducted in such a stately fashion, and so much money was spent on it, that men called the place of meeting the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Nothing having come of it, Henry made an alliance with Charles. In 1521 he went to war against Francis, but did not win much glory in the struggle. However, Charles finally defeated the French, and thus made himself the most powerful of European sovereigns.

The Field of
the Cloth of
Gold

7. Henry did not get much good by his wars. He had hoped to be able to win famous victories. But his actual successes were much less than he expected. Moreover, he spent so much money on raising soldiers that he had to ask Parliament for heavy taxes. This the people did not like. Before long many accused Wolsey of wasting vast sums on useless wars, when it would have been much fairer to have blamed Henry himself. We should not, however, forget that Wolsey's foreign policy once more made England an important power in Europe. For a long time foreigners had almost forgotten that there was such a place as England. There was no longer any danger of the country being ignored. But in their efforts to make England play a great part, neither Henry nor Wolsey thought much of the justice of their cause.

8. Henry had married his brother Arthur's widow, *Catharine of Aragon*, and lived with her happily for about seventeen years. She bore him a daughter, Mary, who later became Queen, but she had no son. The King was very anxious for an heir to succeed him. As Catharine grew old he became tired of her, and fell in love with a proud, foolish court beauty named *Anne Boleyn*. He planned to divorce Catharine so that he might marry Anne. He professed that his conscience pricked him for having entered into a marriage that was against the law of the Church; and which had been made lawful only in his particular case by special leave granted him by the Pope. Now, he went to the new Pope, *Clement VII.*, and asked him to declare that the former Pope had made a mistake in giving him permission to marry his brother's widow. This, however, Clement VII. was afraid to do, though he long pretended to be desirous of giving him what he wanted. To gain time, Clement appointed Wolsey and

**Wolsey
blamed for
Henry's
failures**

**The divorce
of Catharine
of Aragon**

an Italian Cardinal, named *Campeggio*, to try the case. This pleased Henry, who thought that Wolsey was sure to be on his side. But before the two Cardinals had made a decision, the Pope took away their power from them and ordered that the case should be tried all over again at Rome.



CATHARINE OF ARAGON

(From a painting in the National Portrait Gallery)

9. This made Henry very angry. In 1529 he attacked Wolsey for having helped the Pope to deceive him, and drove him from power. At first he allowed Wolsey to retire to York. But before long he accused him of being a traitor, and ordered him to come to London to be tried. It was the

**Fall of
Wolsey**

dead of winter, and Wolsey was already an old man and broken in health. On his way he fell ill and was forced to stop at Leicester. There, a few days later, he died. The last words he spoke were, 'Had I but served my God as faithfully as I have served my king, He would not have deserted me in my old age'.

10. Henry was still eager to get his divorce. He saw that his only chance of getting the Pope to agree to it was by threatening him. The Pope's authority was no longer what it once had been. Since 1517 *Martin Luther* had been preaching in Germany that there was nothing about the power of the Pope in the Bible, and that there were many things in the Church that sadly wanted reforming. The movement thus started was called the *Reformation*, and soon broke up Europe into different religious bodies. Those who remained faithful to the Pope and the old faith were called *Roman Catholics*. Those who followed Luther were called *Protestants*, because they protested against the Pope and his teaching. They soon became so numerous that most of northern Europe fell away altogether from obedience to the Pope. At the first outbreak of the Reformation, England and Henry remained true to the old faith. Henry actually wrote a book against Luther. This book so pleased the Pope that he gave Henry the title of *Defender of the Faith*. This name British kings and queens have kept ever since, and it still can be read on their coins.

11. When Henry pressed Clement VII. hard on the divorce question, it was pretty clear that the Pope and the king would soon cease to be good friends. As Clement continued to hold out, Henry called together a Parliament and passed laws through it, which gradually took away all the power of the Pope in England. But the Pope was still as obstinate as ever, so that

**Beginning
of the Re-
formation**

**The breach
between
England and
the Pope**

the great result of the divorce question was the separation of England from Rome. The most important of the Acts of Parliament which carried this out was the Act of Supremacy, passed in 1534. It declared that the king was *Supreme Head of the English Church*, and thus set up what was called the *Royal Supremacy*. Having thus decided that the Pope had no right to exercise authority in England, Henry persuaded the Archbishop of Canterbury, *Thomas Cranmer*, to grant his divorce. He then married Anne Boleyn. The ill-treated Catharine was forced to submit. She died soon after, protesting to the last that she was Henry's lawful wife.

**Thomas
Cranmer**

12. Most Englishmen agreed with Henry in throwing off the Pope's power. But there were a few bold men who were daring enough to incur the king's wrath by refusing to change their faith at his bidding. Chief among these friends of the Pope was *Sir Thomas More*, a famous lawyer and writer. He had been made Lord Chancellor after Wolsey's fall, but had soon thrown up his office in disgust and gone back into private life. Up to this time Henry had professed to be a very great friend of More's. He not only sought his advice, but often paid him sudden visits to his house, where he would walk round the garden with his arm put lovingly round More's neck. But, even then, More did not trust him. 'If my head,' he said, 'would win for the king a castle in France, it would not fail to go.' But More, though he had been anxious to make the state of the Church better, saw how much there was that was good in the old ways. He was very glad, therefore, to be released from the king's service, and to live quietly with his family. But Henry would not allow this, and was angry that an old minister of his should oppose him. He called upon More to take an oath that Anne Boleyn was lawful queen, and to deny

**The Royal
Supremacy
and Sir
Thomas
More**

that the Pope had any power in England. More knew that if he refused he would soon be a dead man, but he never hesitated as to what was right. He was at once shut up in the Tower, and soon condemned to death as a traitor. He went to his doom so calmly that he made jests on the scaffold. After he had laid his head upon the block, he shifted his position for a moment to put his beard out of the way of the headsman's axe. 'It is a pity,' he said, 'that it should be cut. It hath not committed treason.' Other good men followed his noble example of obeying their conscience rather than the king's will. The chief of these was *John Fisher*, Bishop of Rochester, the best and most learned of all the English bishops. But Henry trampled on all opposition, so that before long no man dared deny that he was Supreme Head of the English Church.

13. A still greater change soon followed. Since the beginnings of the Christian faith in England, a great many men and women had taken vows to give up the world for the sake of religion.

**The
monasteries**

They had joined together in little societies, in order to live far from the bustle and confusion of ordinary life. They had nothing of their own; they were not allowed to marry, and they were bound to obey the abbot or abbess, as the chief of each house was called. They spent their time in prayer, alms-giving, meditation, and study. The buildings in which they lived were called *monasteries*, or *abbeys*, or houses of religion, and those who lived in them were called monks and nuns. We have seen how in the old days the best and holiest of men gladly entered the monasteries and what good lives these monks lived, and how much their example did to promote religion and learning in England.

14. By this time the spirit of the monks had weakened. A layman like More could live as holy a life in the world as a monk in his monastery. Moreover,

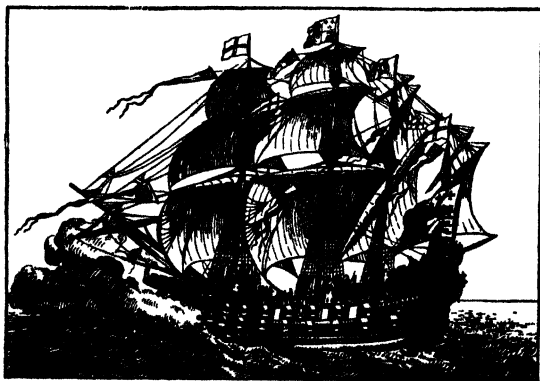
there were so many monasteries that there were not enough men of the right sort to fill them. The wealth of many abbeys had tempted the monks into luxury. Many were idle and careless, and some of them led wicked lives. Thus it was that the monasteries had lost popularity, while their lands tempted the greedy, and their weakness made them easy to attack. Henry was eager to get money, and it now struck him that it would be a fine plan to put an end to them all and keep their lands for himself and his friends. He was always clever in finding good excuses for anything that he wanted to do. He now said that the monks were idle, corrupt, and useless, and that even the good ones were his enemies, since they were friends of the Pope and enemies of the Royal Supremacy. He now called to his help a greedy, cruel, self-seeking minister named *Thomas Cromwell*, an old dependent of Wolsey, who, after his master's fall, entered the king's service. With Cromwell's aid Henry abolished the monasteries altogether. The smaller houses went first in 1536, but the large ones suffered the same fate within the three following years.

**The sup-
pression of
the monas-
teries :
Thomas
Cromwell**

15. The monks' vast estates now went to the king. But Henry kept very little for himself, selling much of the land in a hurry at low prices, and giving a great deal away to his ministers and favourites, whom he was unable to reward out of his own resources. Ruthless acts marked everywhere the destruction of the monasteries. The holy places, where the people had so long worshipped God, were profaned. The abbey churches lay roofless and robbed of their rich ornaments. Perhaps some courtier built a fine new house for himself out of the ruins. Sometimes the abbey was pulled down to erect cottages or to mend roads. Sometimes it was left to moulder away gradually into those ruins,

**Results of
the sup-
pression**

which still show us how beautiful the abbeys once were. However, about half of the monks' property was used for public purposes. Some was employed to increase the number of bishops, and some abbeys were kept to be cathedrals and parish churches. A good deal of money was also used to build fortifications to protect England from invasion, and fine new ships of war. The most famous of Henry's battleships was the *Great Harry*, the picture of which gives us a good idea of what the ships of the times were like. The flags



THE GREAT HARRY

floating at the mast are the St. George's Cross and the Royal Standard of England.

16. As much of the abbey spoils was spent on enriching Henry's friends as in promoting worthy objects. The results were by no means all for good. The monks had been very easy and indulgent to their tenants. But the new landlords of the abbey lands were, as a rule, greedier and harder than the monks had been.

The
Pilgrimage
of Grace

They raised the rents and took away from the poor the use of the *common lands*, on which everybody had been allowed to turn his cattle and sheep to graze. Before long, old-fashioned men lamented the fall of the abbeys, and in 1536 the Yorkshire men even rose in revolt to bring the monks back. Their rising was called the *Pilgrimage of Grace*. But the king stood firm and the rebellion was easily suppressed.

17. Cromwell now persuaded Henry to make other changes in religion, such as breaking down holy images, and reducing the number of holidays. But the most important thing now done was the publication of an *English translation of the Bible* by Cranmer. In 1538 the king ordered that a copy of this Bible should stand open in every parish church, that any one who liked could read it. It was believed that this would make the people more ready to receive the new teaching.

The English Bible

18. Henry was now drifting towards Luther and the Protestants. He still professed to be a good Catholic and steered a middle way between Popery and the new faith, and hated Protestants as heretics. While hanging and cutting into quarters those *Papists*, or friends of the Pope, who denied the Royal Supremacy, he sought out and burnt to death at the stake the followers of Luther. But under the influence of Cromwell and Cranmer, Henry was making bishops of men whom he would have burnt a few years before, and it looked as if he would soon become a regular Protestant himself.

The King's middle way in religion

19. Other events happened within his own household now which soured Henry's temper. He had soon grown tired of Anne Boleyn, who bore him a daughter Elizabeth, and not the son he desired to have. He found an excuse to get rid of her, and ruthlessly cut off her head. The very day after her execution he married a third wife,

The fall of Cromwell

Jane Seymour. She was the mother of Edward, Henry's only son, and died soon after he was born. The king was overjoyed to have an heir, and for some time remained a widower, but Cromwell now persuaded him to marry a German princess, *Anne of Cleves*, whose kinsfolk were among Luther's chief supporters. Cromwell hoped thus to make friends with the German Protestants, but his plan proved his ruin. Anne of Cleves was so ugly and stupid that Henry divorced her at once. He accused Cromwell of treason, and in 1540 sent him to the scaffold. Like Wolsey, Cromwell had served Henry only too slavishly, and it was absurd of the king to accuse him of disloyalty.

20. With Cromwell's fall Henry's desire for change died away. The king was now content with having got rid of the Pope and the monks, and allowed the Church to go on with little further reformation for the rest of his life.

**The last
years of
Henry VIII.**

His health was now broken, and his temper more fierce and brutal than ever. He still beheaded Papists and burnt Protestants. He still sent to the scaffold all whom he believed were plotting against him, and took no pains at all to prove that they had broken the law. He married two more wives after Anne of Cleves' divorce. The first of these, *Catharine Howard*, was soon beheaded like Anne Boleyn, but she had led so wicked a life that the king had some excuse. Henry's sixth wife was a lively young widow named *Catharine Parr*, who had the good luck to survive him. At last the king died in 1547. After him came such a period of trouble that men soon longed to be ruled once more by the grim tyrant, who, with all his violence, had given England peace and strong rule.

21. Some other notable things happened in Henry VIII.'s time. The king was anxious to become supreme lord over all the British islands, and was the first

sovereign after Edward I. to devote much pains to secure this object. He failed altogether to make England friendly with Scotland, since he could not resist plundering and devastating Scotland whenever he had the chance. The result was that the Scots remained in alliance with France and continued to uphold the Pope. Henry did something to make Ireland more peaceful and unite it more closely with England. Dropping the old title of Lord of Ireland, he was the first English ruler who called himself King of Ireland. He broke down the power of the great Norman house of Fitzgerald and strove to win over the chief men, Normans and Irish alike, by sharing with them the spoils of the Irish monasteries. For a moment it seemed as if Henry had succeeded in making himself real master of Ireland, but his children afterwards found that they had to do most of the work over again. But Henry's greatest success was with Wales, which since Edward I.'s time had been dependent on England, though without forming a part of it. In 1536 Henry united Wales, both the Principality and the Marches, with England, giving both countries equal laws and privileges. He divided the Marches of Wales (see map on p. 106) into counties, and added these to the older Welsh shires, set up in the Principality of Wales by Edward I. Thus the whole of Wales and the March was divided into thirteen counties exactly like those of England. Moreover, Henry VIII. gave these thirteen Welsh shires and the boroughs contained in them the privilege of sending members to the Parliament at London. At the same time he put an end to the special position which Cheshire had enjoyed as a Palatine county, since the Norman period, and which had made it, like Wales and its March, different from the ordinary parts of England.

Scotland**Ireland****Union of
England and
Wales**

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Wolsey? What do you know about his early life? What advice did he give Henry VIII. in his foreign policy? What advantage did England derive by his policy?
2. Why was Henry VIII. offended with Wolsey? What led to his fall?
3. Where did the Protestant movement take its rise at first? What led to the breach between Henry VIII. and the Pope? Tell how the powers of the Pope were cut off in England?
4. What views had Henry VIII. regarding the new faith? What changes in religion did he bring about with the advice of Cromwell?
5. Why were the monasteries suppressed? Mention the chief results of the suppression.
6. Write a few lines about More, Cranmer and Thomas Cromwell.

CHAPTER XXIII

Edward VI., 1547-1553

Principal Dates :

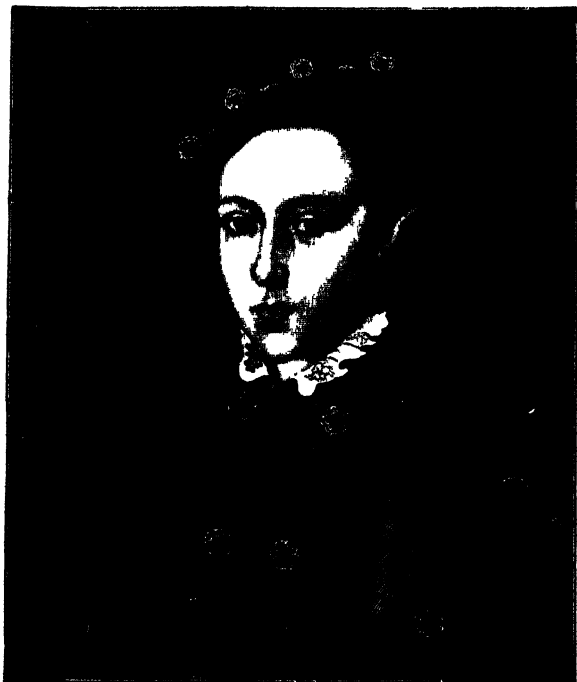
- 1547. Accession of Edward VI.
- 1547-1549. Protectorate of Somerset.
- 1549-1553. Rule of Northumberland.
- 1553. Death of Edward VI.

1. Edward VI., Henry's only son, was a boy of ten. His mother's brother, *Edward Seymour*, Duke of Somerset, became Lord Protector. Somerset was well-meaning and active, but neither wise nor prudent. He tried to do too much at once, and as a result did nothing properly. To carry out Henry's policy of uniting England and Scotland, he planned to marry the young king to his cousin, *Mary Queen of Scots*, who had been a queen since she was a baby, and was the grand-daughter of James IV. and of Margaret Tudor. But he did not set about this in the right way. He marched into Scotland, won a victory at *Pinkie*, near Edinburgh, and burnt and pillaged all south-eastern Scotland. Angry at this rough wooing, the Scots sent their queen to France, where she was brought up to be a good Frenchwoman and Catholic. When she grew up, she was married to the French King's eldest son. Thus England and Scotland long remained bad friends.

The
Protector
Somerset
defeats the
Scots

2. Somerset thought that Henry VIII. had spared too much of the old Church, and, following Cranmer's advice, desired to carry out further changes. He broke

down the images of saints, and allowed the clergy to marry. But the most important thing he did was to



KING EDWARD VI.

put an end to the old fashion of saying the services of the Church in Latin. Instead of the Latin Mass,

**Somerset
furthered the
Reformation**

Somerset introduced an *English Book of Common Prayer* in 1549. This is called the *First Prayer Book of Edward VI.* Most Englishmen were not prepared for so many changes. They were the more angry at them

since some of the reformers only used religion as a cloak to their greed. Many of the Council eagerly enriched themselves with the property of the Church. Though better than most of the Councillors, Somerset pulled down churches to build for himself a new house in the Strand in London.

3. In 1549 there were two rebellions. One was in *Devonshire*, where the people rose in revolt against the new English service, which they said was like a Christmas game. The other was in *Norfolk*, where the poor took arms against the landlords, who had robbed them of the common lands on which they used to turn their sheep. Somerset was too weak to deal properly with these rebellions. The Council drove him from the protectorate. Afterwards he was accused of treason, because he tried to get back power, and was beheaded.

**The revolts
of 1549**

4. *John Dudley, Earl of Warwick*, a fierce and pitiless soldier, who had put down the rebels with a strong hand, succeeded to Somerset's power. He made himself *Duke of Northumberland*, and pretended to be very anxious to reform the Church still farther. But he had no real zeal for Protestantism, and merely sought to get the Protestants on his side and plunder the Church. The extreme men said that Somerset's Prayer Book did not go far enough. To please them Northumberland issued what is called King Edward's *Second Prayer Book*, which is much more like the one used at present than the first Prayer Book. We must not think that all who favoured the new ways were self-seekers like Northumberland. There were very pious and honourable men among them, such as the sturdy preacher *Hugh Latimer*, once Bishop of Worcester, and *John Ridley*, the scholarly Bishop of London.

**The rule of
North-
umberland**

5. Edward was a forward, serious-minded boy, very anxious to promote the Protestant cause. But he had

wretched health, and died of consumption before he was sixteen. On his deathbed Northumberland persuaded him that the succession of his elder sister Mary, the daughter of Catharine of Aragon, who had been brought up a Catholic, would be dangerous to religion, and induced him to leave the throne to his Protestant cousin, *Lady Jane Grey*. *Lady Jane* was a good and pious girl, more fond of study than of amusing herself. But she was Northumberland's daughter-in-law and no one wished the greedy duke to remain in power. When Edward died, Northumberland proclaimed *Lady Jane* as queen. But *Jane* only reigned ten days. Everybody saw that the *Lady Mary* had the better title, and Northumberland himself was forced to give up the struggle. *Mary* now became queen amidst universal rejoicing, and Northumberland was beheaded.

The death of
Edward, and
the attempt
to make
Lady Jane
Grey queen

QUESTIONS

1. Who was Somerset? What changes in religion did he introduce? What further changes were introduced by Northumberland?
2. Tell what you know of the two rebellions that broke out in 1549.

CHAPTER XXIV

Mary, 1553-1558

(Married Philip II., King of Spain)

Principal Dates :

- 1553. Accession of Mary.
- 1556. Cranmer burnt.
- 1558. Loss of Calais; death of Mary.

1. Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon, had lived an unhappy and solitary life. She was strongly in favour of the old religion, and hated the changes brought about by her father and brother. She was brave, energetic, strong-minded, and honourable, but weak health and misfortune had soured her temper and made her nervous and suspicious. Her zeal for her faith made her cruel against the Protestants, but in other ways she was less hard than her father. She was the first woman who ever reigned over England.

**Character
of Queen
Mary**

2. Mary at once got rid of the religious changes made under Edward VI. She brought back the Latin Mass, forced the clergy to give up either their wives or their livings, and prevented all Protestant teaching. Thus the state of religion became what it had been at the end of the reign of Henry VIII. Some of those who refused to follow the queen's religion were put into prison and others fled into exile. But most Englishmen were willing that the old customs should be brought back.

**The restoration
of the
old religion**

3. Mary also wished to make England and Spain as friendly as they had been before Henry VIII.'s religi-



QUEEN MARY TUDOR

*(From a painting by Lucas de Heere, dated 1554,
belonging to the Society of Antiquaries)*

ous changes, to bring back the power of the Pope, and

to restore the monks and nuns. She found, however, that many who approved of her first acts were opposed to these desires. But she had a strong will, and never flinched in carrying out what she thought was right. First of all she succeeded in making friends with her cousin, the Emperor Charles V., the most powerful prince in Europe. Before long she married Charles's eldest son, Philip, who a little later became *Philip II.* of Spain. The match was not popular. There was a rebellion against it, headed by *Sir Thomas Wyatt*, but it was soon put down. The revolt frightened Mary into sterner courses. She cut off the head of Lady Jane Grey and her husband, whom up to now she had allowed to live on in prison. At one time the queen shut up her sister Elizabeth, Anne Boleyn's daughter, in the Tower. But Mary was not happy in the marriage that she had sacrificed so much to bring about. Philip wedded her simply to get England on his side in a war that he was carrying on against France. When he had obtained his purpose he neglected her, and made her very miserable.

**Mary marries
Philip of
Spain**

4. Mary now persuaded her Parliament to pass a law reviving the power of the Pope in England, and to renew the law of Henry IV. by which heretics were to be burnt alive. She thus won all the things for which she had been striving except the re-establishment of the monasteries. She tried hard to bring back the monks. Her nobles were afraid that, if the abbeys were restored, they would have to give back the monks' lands that Henry VIII. had given them. They succeeded in preventing her carrying out her purpose. Indeed, they would not allow the Pope's authority to be acknowledged once more, until he had promised that he would not insist on the monks getting back their estates.

**The restoration
of the
Pope's
authority**

5. Mary now began to persecute those Protestants who refused to give up their faith. Many were thrown into prison, and during her short reign over three hundred Protestants were burnt at the stake for no other crime than their religion. Most of these were simple clergymen, tradesmen, and workmen, who gladly laid down their lives for their belief. Many touching stories have been told of their sufferings, and their death did more to win converts to the new faith than all the laws that Henry VIII. and Edward VI. had passed in its favour. Before Mary was queen it had been the interest of many greedy men to pretend that they wanted to reform the Church. But all these self-seekers were now attending Mass and praying for the Pope. The true reformers now showed that Protestantism could inspire in its disciples the highest courage and self-sacrifice.

6. Conspicuous among the Protestant martyrs was Archbishop Cranmer. There is little to admire in his life, for he had always done what the king or the great lords told him. His divorcing Mary's mother was but the first of a series of mean acts. He was not so much a bad man as a weak scholar, without the courage or the strong will that makes a man great in action. Almost to the last he was timid. He tried to save his life by giving up his opinions. But his submission did not save him. Mary was resolved to be revenged upon the man who had divorced her mother and ordered him to be executed. At the last moment Cranmer's better nature triumphed. He ended his life bravely, lamenting the weakness that had led him to renounce his faith, and declaring that he died a Protestant. As the flames were gathering around him, he thrust into the fire his right hand, with which he had signed his recantation, saying, 'This hand hath offended.' Among the other witnesses to the Protestant faith were Hugh

**The Marian
martyrs**

**The deaths
of Cranmer,
Kidley, and
Latimer**

Latimer, the most lovable of the Protestant teachers and Ridley, the learned Bishop of London. These two perished together at Oxford. As the fire was being lighted, old Latimer cried to his companion, 'Be of good comfort, Master Ridley, we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out.'

7. We must not blame Mary too harshly for these cruel deeds. In those days it was thought by everybody that it was the duty of the ruler to put heretics to death; and our notion that the best way is to allow every man to think and worship as he pleases, was hardly known. Mary herself was very wretched.

**Mary's mis-
fortunes
and death:
Loss of
Calais**

She saw that, despite all her efforts, Protestantism was still a power. To please her husband she went to war with the French. In the course of it the French captured Calais. Mary brooded bitterly over this loss. 'When I die,' said she, 'you will find *Calais* graven upon my heart.' Her health broke down, and in 1558 she died, miserable and dispirited, knowing that her reign had been a failure, and that her sister Elizabeth would undo all her work.

QUESTIONS

1. What right had Mary to the throne? What were her religious views? What changes made under Edward VI. did she get rid of? Was Mary able to restore the old faith completely in England? How did she deal with the Protestants?

2. Was the Spanish alliance popular? How did England suffer by it?

CHAPTER XXV

Elizabeth, 1558-1603

Principal Dates :

- 1558. Accession of Elizabeth.
- 1561. Mary Stewart returns to Scotland.
- 1568. Mary Stewart escapes to England.
- 1569. Revolt of the Northern Catholics.
- 1570. The Pope excommunicates Elizabeth.
- 1572. The Revolt of the Dutch from Spain.
- 1577. Drake begins his voyage round the world.
- 1586. Babington's Plot.
- 1587. Execution of Mary Queen of Scots.
- 1588. Defeat of the Armada.
- 1601. Execution of Essex.
- 1603. Conquest of Ireland completed, and death of Elizabeth.

1. Elizabeth, the new queen, was a true daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. She was good-looking, robust, vigorous, and hard-working. She spoke several languages, and was proud of her skill in dancing, hunting, and riding. She could play the king as well as her father, and her genial manner won for her a warm place in her subjects' hearts. She loved power so well that she made up her mind never to share her throne with a husband. Like Henry VIII., she was coarse and unscrupulous, and she never hesitated to tell lies. She was careful and almost mean in most of her expenses, but she never minded spending money on her dresses, her amusements, and her favourites. She was vain and selfish, and found it hard to make up her mind in little things, but in great matters she showed rare strength and firmness of purpose. She reigned

**Character of
Elizabeth**

over England for more than forty-five years, and all through this long period she always followed the same policy. This policy, moreover, was really her own,



QUEEN ELIZABETH

though she had much help from her faithful minister, William Cecil, Lord Burghley. She was the greatest

of England's queens. She had wonderful courage, and never lost faith in England or in herself. Though she lived in trying times, her reign was a magnificent success.

2. The first thing Elizabeth did was to settle the future of the Church. She had seen how both Edward VI. and Mary had failed because each of **The Elizabethan settlement of religion** them, though in different ways, took up too extreme a line. She made up her mind to go back, as far as she could to the middle course of Henry VIII. With this object she persuaded Parliament to pass a new *Act of Supremacy*, which revived the headship of the Crown over the Church, and once more renounced the rule of the Pope. She looked on the Pope as a foreign prince, the ruler of a state in Italy, and did not see why a foreigner should have any power over England. But Elizabeth soon found a great difficulty in her way. Many of the old supporters of her father had been so much frightened at the excesses of Edward's reign that they had gone over to Mary's policy. They were therefore unwilling to uphold Elizabeth's supremacy over the Church. She was forced therefore to join hands with the Protestants whose leaders, now back from exile, were anxious to carry out a thorough reform. To please these she restored the English Prayer Book of Edward VI., allowed the clergy once more to marry, and drew up the *Thirty-Nine Articles*, which were a list of the chief doctrines of the Protestants.

3. Elizabeth was careful not to go too far. Some of the exiles had lived when abroad at Geneva, where the great French Protestant, *John Calvin*, had set up a thoroughly reformed Protestant Church. On their return they wanted to make the Church of England like the Church of Geneva. They disliked bishops, set forms of prayer, elaborate ceremonies and the wearing of a

The queen and the Puritans

special dress by the clergy. They were called *Puritans* because they thought that they were making the Church more pure. At first they supported Elizabeth, thinking that she would, like Edward VI., bring about further changes. But Elizabeth soon showed that the settlement she had made was not to be further altered. Then the Puritans began to grumble, and many of the Puritan clergy would not observe the ceremonies ordered by the Prayer Book.

4. Elizabeth insisted that her subjects should go regularly to church, and that the services of the Church should be carried on in the way that she ordered. The Puritans were quite willing to attend church, but they wished to worship there after the Puritan fashion. This Elizabeth would not allow, and before long she drove out of their livings some of the Puritan clergy who had refused to wear surplices when reading prayers. Some of these ejected clergy formed congregations of their own. They were called *Separatists* because they separated from the Church, or *Independents*, because they taught that each individual congregation ought to be an independent church ruling itself. They were the first *Protestant Dissenters*. They were not, however, numerous, and were a good deal persecuted. Most of the Puritans remained in the Church, though they were very discontented.

**The
Separatists
or Independents**

5. Elizabeth was much more hostile to the Roman Catholics than to the Puritans. She turned out nearly all Mary's bishops and put Protestants in their places. She ordered all the Roman Catholics to attend the Protestant churches, and heavily fined those who refused. Such Catholics were called *Popish Recusants*, and bit by bit their lot became a very hard one.

**Elizabeth
and the
Roman
Catholics**

6. Elizabeth had as much trouble abroad as at home. She soon ended the war with France even though she

had to give up Calais to get peace. After this England and France remained on very bad terms. Luckily, Philip of Spain was jealous of France.

**Elizabeth
and foreign
powers**

He was obliged to support Elizabeth, though she had put down the Catholic worship in England, of which he was so zealous a champion. He disliked England, and only upheld Elizabeth because he was afraid of the French. There was always a danger lest France and Spain should join together against England. But fortunately this never happened.

7. The ill-will of France for England grew worse when a new king, *Francis II.*, arose, who had married *Mary Queen of Scots*. Mary claimed to

**Mary Queen
of Scots**

be the lawful queen of England. This claim was dangerous not only because she was supported by her husband, but because the Catholics looked upon Elizabeth as having no right to rule England. Her mother, Anne Boleyn, had married Henry VIII. during Catharine's lifetime, and the Pope held that Catharine only had been Henry's lawful wife.

8. While Mary was in France great changes took place in Scotland. The Scots, who had hitherto been

**The Reforma-
tion in
Scotland**

Catholics, now suddenly became eager and extreme Protestants. Led by the famous preacher, *John Knox*, the Scots threw off the rule of the Pope and the bishops. By John Knox's advice the Scots set up a Protestant Church which exactly copied the Church at Geneva. This Church was called *Presbyterian* because it was governed by little councils of *presbyters* or elders, who took the place of the bishops of the old Church. The Church of Scotland was thus made just what the English Puritans wanted to make the Church of England. Moreover, the Scots paid no attention to the efforts of their queen to prevent their becoming Protestants. They became now such staunch Protestants

that they could not remain allies of the Catholic French. A common religion now began to bind together the English and the Scots, who, ever since the days of Edward I., had been bitter enemies.

9. Soon after this the French king, Mary's husband, died. Mary was clever, ambitious, and energetic, as well as very beautiful and charming. She did not care to go on living in France after she had ceased to be the first lady in the country. So in 1561 she went home to Scotland, though she was a keen Roman Catholic and most Scots hated her religion. She told them that if they would let her follow her faith, she was quite willing that they should follow theirs. Before long, however, Mary found that she could not get much power over her Protestant subjects. She therefore turned her eyes to England, where the Romanists were stronger. If they could prevail in England, they would probably depose Elizabeth and make Mary queen. In any case, if Elizabeth died, Mary was the next heir of Henry VII, being his great-grand-daughter through Margaret, wife of James IV.

**Mary
returns to
Scotland**

10. For the first few years that she lived in Scotland Mary acted very prudently. But after that she fell into serious trouble. She had married as her second husband her cousin, *Henry, Lord Darnley*, a foolish and jealous young man, but she soon got to hate him very bitterly. She fell under the influence of a fierce Border chieftain named the Earl of Bothwell. Before long Scotland was horrified to learn that the house in which Darnley had been sleeping had been blown up with gunpowder, and that Darnley's dead body had been found in the garden. It was believed everywhere that Bothwell had murdered Darnley, and that Mary well knew what he was doing. Soon afterwards Mary married Bothwell, and so suspicion was converted into certainty. The

**Deposition
of Mary**

Scots in disgust dethroned her and set up as king her son, *James VI.*, a baby only a few months old. Mary was imprisoned in *Lochleven Castle*, a lonely fortress situated on an island in the midst of a lake. In 1568 she escaped and rallied her friends round her, but was defeated, and forced to flee to England.

11. Elizabeth was puzzled what to do with Mary. She could not restore her to her throne, because she neither wanted to make her powerful nor to offend the Protestant nobles who governed Scotland in the name of the little **Mary's flight to England** James VI. She therefore resolved to keep Mary in England in an honourable captivity. But Mary was dangerous to Elizabeth even in her prison. In 1569, the year after her arrival, the Roman Catholic lords in the North of England rose in revolt against Elizabeth, and strove to put Mary on the throne. Elizabeth suppressed the rebellion with some difficulty.

12. In 1570 the Pope declared that, as Elizabeth was a heretic, she had no right to reign. No one could now be both a good friend of the Pope and a good subject of Elizabeth. The **Catholic conspiracies against Elizabeth** more active of the English Roman Catholics, forbidden to obey Elizabeth, began to plot against her in Mary's favour. Philip of Spain, who was now becoming unfriendly to Elizabeth, gave them help. The danger to Elizabeth soon became very grave. She had treated the Roman Catholics so badly that we cannot be much surprised that some of them should do all that they could to drive her from the throne. Indeed, we should rather wonder that all the Catholics did not join these conspiracies. Many of them never forgot that they were Englishmen as well as Catholics, and despite all the Pope could say, remained loyal to Elizabeth. It was an age of the fiercest religious bigotry. Some Catholics, who in other ways were quite good men, thought it was

their religious duty to join in rebellions, and even in conspiracies to murder the queen. Nor were they alone in this. In other countries, as, for example, France, there were Protestant fanatics as willing to murder Catholics as some of the Catholic zealots in England were eager to slay Elizabeth.

13. The Romanists in England were not the only danger. Most of the great sovereigns of Europe were Roman Catholics, and they were always looking out for a chance to help their English brethren in the faith. The greatest new trouble to the queen came from a large number of missionary priests, mostly Englishmen. Educated abroad in the Catholic faith, they came back to England to quicken the zeal of the old Catholics, and to make what converts they could among the Protestants. They were men of great earnestness and devotion, who carried their lives in their hands. Some of them were called the *seminary priests*, because they were brought up in *seminaries*, or theological colleges, set up for the education of the Roman clergy on the Continent. A few of the cleverest were called *Jesuits*, because they were the members of a new order of priests called the Jesuit Order, recently established to win back heretics to the Catholic faith.

The Catholic missionaries and the counter reformation

14. Elizabeth was afraid of these zealots. Parliament passed cruel laws which made it easy to put them to death as traitors, and before long many devoted missionaries were executed. Before Elizabeth died nearly as many Roman Catholic priests were hanged as traitors as there had been Protestants burnt as heretics in the days of Mary. Some of those who suffered were high-souled enthusiasts, who were quite as much martyrs for their religion as any of Mary's victims. But others were political intriguers, who fomented

Elizabeth persecutes the Roman Catholics

every plot against the queen, and it is only fair to remember this when we blame Elizabeth as a religious persecutor. In truth, it was a life-and-death struggle between the old and the new faiths, and the champions of both sides were very unscrupulous as to the weapons they used to defeat their foes.

15. Plot after plot was formed to release Mary of Scotland and to slay Elizabeth. Fortunately they were all discovered, but they created the greatest alarm among English Protestants. At last a conspiracy was detected, of which the chief actor was a foolish boasting youth named *Anthony Babington*. He was soon arrested and put to death. But letters were found written by Mary, in which she warmly approved of Babington's design to murder the queen. This gave Elizabeth her chance, and Mary was tried as an accomplice in an attempt to slay Elizabeth. Mary declared that as a crowned queen she could not be tried in any English court. But her plea was overruled, and she was condemned to death. For a long time Elizabeth was afraid to execute the sentence. But at last she signed the death-warrant and early in 1587 Mary was beheaded. She died with the courage and dignity that had never deserted her. With her death Elizabeth's worst dangers passed away. There was no longer any reason for making plots to slay her, for if they had succeeded, the next heir now was James of Scotland, who was a Protestant. The Catholics looked upon Mary as a martyr, forgetting her hardness and selfishness, and only remembering her sufferings and devotion to her faith.

16. During the years of Mary's imprisonment England and Spain were gradually drifting into war. But Philip was so afraid of the French joining the English against him that he put up with almost any insults

**The
Babington
conspiracy
and the
execution
of Mary
Queen of
Scots**

from the English rather than declare war on them. The result was a curious state of things. England and Spain remained at peace so far as the name went. Yet each tried hard to do the other as much harm as it could. Spain aided the conspirators against Elizabeth.

England and Spain drift into war

The queen answered by helping the rebels against Philip. And she had a very good chance of doing this, since in 1572 Holland and the other Northern states of the Netherlands rose in revolt against Philip, their ruler. For a long time Philip had sought to stamp out Protestantism among the Dutch, but they were so stubborn and strenuous that he could never succeed. At last they threw off his yoke, set up a Protestant Dutch Republic, and called on all Protestant Europe to help them to secure their freedom. The head of the Dutch was *William, Prince of Orange*, great-grandfather of the William of Orange who, more than a hundred years after this, became King of England as William III. At last he was murdered by a Catholic enthusiast, and it looked as if the Dutch would be beaten after all.

17. In 1586 Elizabeth sent soldiers to help the Dutch. At their head she put *Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester*, the son of the Duke of Northumberland, whom Mary Tudor had put to death. He was a great favourite of Elizabeth, who would probably have married him if she had not resolved to keep single. But he was not wise or prudent enough for such a hard post as the command of the army in the Netherlands. However, he did something to assist the Dutch. In one of the battles which he fought, his nephew, *Sir Philip Sidney*, was slain. Sidney, though still quite a young man, was looked upon as the pattern of a chivalrous English gentleman. He had written beautiful sonnets and romances, had fought bravely, and had made

Leicester and Philip Sidney in Netherlands

himself much loved by his friends. It is said that when he lay wounded on the field some one brought him a drink of water. But Sidney saw a private soldier lying near who was suffering more than himself. He bade the water be given to the soldier, saying to him, 'Thy necessity is greater than mine'.

18. The English and Spanish were also fighting a great deal at sea. When Henry VII. had been King of England, *Christopher Columbus* had discovered *America*, and the Spaniards, in whose pay Columbus had been, conquered a great deal of this new world for themselves. Up to this time the English took very little interest in the sea or trade.

**The struggle
between
England
and Spain
on the
ocean**

They were an easy-going, stay-at-home people, fond of plentiful living and hard fighting, but quite indifferent to adventure and discovery. Until Tudor times nearly all the foreign trade of the country had been in the hands of Netherlanders, Germans, and Italians. But the Reformation had already begun to stir up the sluggish English. Under Henry VIII. who did a great deal for the English navy, there was a new spirit of adventure and enterprise abroad. Under Elizabeth the new spirit grew. English sailors now began to appear in distant seas, eager for adventure, profit, and renown. They found an admirable opportunity of winning all these things in the vast and badly ruled Spanish possessions in America. Philip forbade all but Spaniards to trade with Spanish colonies. But English ships now came with cheaper and better goods than the Spaniards had to sell, and, despite the law, the colonists willingly bought of the English the commodities which they lacked.

19. The chief want of the Spanish colonists was that of labourers to till the soil and work the mines. A shrewd, hard-hearted but brave English captain, *Sir John Hawkins*, kidnapped negroes in Africa, and sold

them at high prices to the Spanish planters. This was the beginning of the *slave-trade* between Africa and America, and of negro slavery in America. In those days, however, neither English nor Spaniards paid any thought to the sufferings of the wretched blacks.

**Hawkins
and the
slave trade**

It was looked upon as a very profitable and useful trade, and Hawkins soon made a fortune by it. Philip became very angry with the English for breaking his laws against foreigners trading with his American subjects. But the Englishmen would not be put down, and began to fight for what they thought were their rights. Before long they found that an easy way to get rich was to rob the Spanish towns in America, or to stop the great Spanish trading ships and seize the cargoes of gold and silver which they were carrying over the Atlantic to Spain. Many of the English sailors were zealous Protestants, and believed that they were doing God's work in robbing and slaying the Papist Spaniards. The Spaniards retaliated when they could. If they managed to capture an English ship, they kept the sailors prisoners, and sometimes tortured or burnt them as heretics.

20. The most famous of the English mariners was *Francis Drake*, a Devonshire man, as so many of these adventurers were, and a kinsman of Hawkins. On one of his voyages he reached the Isthmus of Panama, and climbing up a lofty hill, looked down on the Pacific Ocean, whose waters no Englishman had previously so much as seen. He resolved that he would some day sail a ship on that strange sea, and some years later was able to redeem his vow. In 1577 he took sail from Plymouth with a fleet of five small ships. With these he sailed to South America. But tempests and misfortunes lessened the numbers of his squadron, and only his own vessel, the little *Pelican*,

**Drake's
voyage
round the
world**

managed to penetrate the stormy Straits of Magellan



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE, IN HIS FORTY-THIRD YEAR.

(From the Engraving by Elstracke)

and reach the open waters of the Pacific. There he

plundered the Spaniards as much as he chose, and filled his ship with a precious cargo. At last he sailed westwards through the Pacific, rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and in 1580, after three years' absence, came back safe and sound to England. He was the first captain who came back from a voyage round the world, and the *Pelican* the first English ship that made that voyage. Elizabeth visited the famous ship, and made Drake a knight. Another famous Devonshire adventurer was *Sir Walter Raleigh*. He introduced the potato and tobacco from America to Europe, and strove to set up a colony in North America which he called *Virginia* in honour of Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen. But his colonists died or were slain by the Indians. It was not until after Elizabeth's death that an English colony was established in America.

Raleigh

21. But it was not only in America that Englishmen were seeking trade and adventure at this time. They determined themselves to find a passage of their own to India. Thus in 1553 a company was formed to seek for a North-East route. After incredible hardships the leader Chancellor reached Archangel, travelled by sleigh across the snow to Moscow, and arranged with the Czar to open up direct trade between England and Russia. On his return to England, the Russia Company was formed to develop this trade. For many years it traded through Archangel, and later when Russia captured the port of Narwa on the Baltic, fleets visited that port instead. For a short time the company even opened up a direct overland trade with the East. Several other trading companies soon followed. The *Levant Company* in 1581 began to trade with Persia through the Mediterranean. At last in 1600 a subsidiary company was formed to sail east round Africa, and the first voyage of the East India Company

**Trading
Companies**

commenced in 1601. The new company soon became so important that it quickly eclipsed its parent in wealth and influence. These various trading companies each received a charter from the crown, granting them a monopoly of the right to trade within a certain area; often, however, they were troubled by 'interlopers' or smugglers, who trafficked within the special area, although they were not members of the company. The growth of these trading companies is a feature of the later years of Elizabeth's reign and a sign of the growing interest of Englishmen in trade and discovery. From trade it was a short step to settlement, and soon the beginnings of the British Empire were to be laid

22. Philip of Spain could not endure for ever the insults which the English were heaping upon him.

**Drake at
Cadiz**

Soon after the death of Mary Queen of Scots, he went to war against England.

He fitted out a vast fleet with which he hoped to conquer the islanders. But Drake was too quick for him. In 1587 Drake sailed right into Cadiz harbour, where the Spanish fleet was being prepared. He sank or burnt a great many ships, and ruined the Spanish fleet for the time. He called this exploit singeing the King of Spain's beard.

23. In 1588 Philip got ready another fleet. It was so strong that some of the Spaniards thought that it

**The Spanish
Armada**

was impossible to conquer it, and called it the Invincible Armada. But the English sailors had beaten the Spaniards so often that they were not afraid of them now. They knew that the Spanish ships, though seeming very big, were generally slow sailers and unwieldy. The Spanish ships were, moreover, crammed with soldiers who were to form an army to invade and conquer England. The notion was to get to England as soon as possible and land the troops there. There were in those days no regular soldiers in England, while the

Spanish army was the bravest and the most famous in the world. But every good Englishman now took up arms for the defence of his country. Catholics as well as Protestants joined the queen's army, and Elizabeth herself inspired the raw levies with something of her faith and courage. Knowing that they were stronger on sea than on land, the English wished to do most of the fighting on the water. But if the Spaniards had managed to land, they would have met a fierce and obstinate resistance.

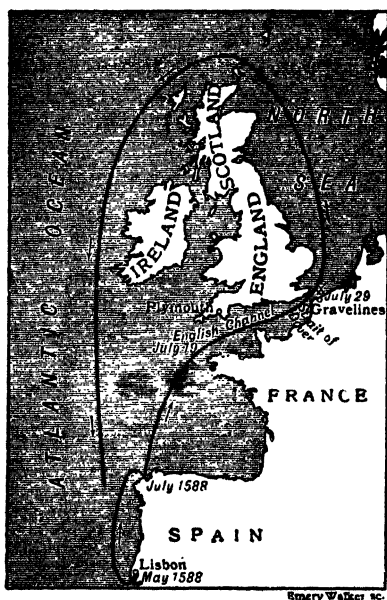


THE ARK ROYAL

24. The English navy was prepared, and many armed merchant-ships came to help the royal warships. Lord *Howard of Effingham* was made commander-in-chief. His flagship was called the *Ark Royal*. It was the biggest and finest ship of the royal navy in those days, and armed with many powerful cannon. Lord Howard was shrewd and competent, though hardly a great sailor. Under him, however, were experienced sea-dogs, like Drake and Hawkins, and the admiral was wise enough to follow their advice. It was not

The Armada
in the
Channel

until the end of July 1588 that the Armada was sighted in the Channel. Lord Howard's fleet was at Plymouth.



It let the Spaniards pass by, and then sailed out of port and hovered in their rear. The Spaniards sailed slowly up the Channel in the form of a huge half-moon. The English in looser order cut off their stragglers, attacked their rearguard, and when assailed in their turn, easily escaped from the enemy by reason of their superior seamanship. The result was that the Spaniards lost very heavily, and were glad to cast anchor off Calais

and rest.

25. The English now set fire to some of their slowest and worst vessels, and with the help of a strong wind drove these blazing fire-ships among the closely packed Spaniards at anchor. Fearful of catching fire the Spanish fleet cut their cables and again took to the sea. A little later they were forced to fight a pitched battle with the English fleet. In this they were so badly beaten that they could not even retreat the way they had come. In despair they sailed northwards, hoping to reach home by doubling the north of Scotland and then turning south. But tempests now completed the work of the English sailors. The west coast of Scot-

Defeat of the Armada

land and Ireland were strewn with Spanish wrecks, and but few ships got home safely. In commemoration of her victory Elizabeth struck a medal on which was written, 'God blew with His winds and they were scattered.'

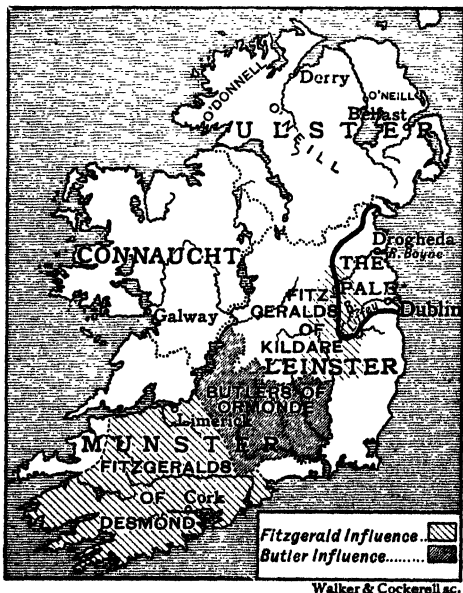
26. The failure of the Armada made Elizabeth's throne quite secure. It saved English Protestantism, and made certain the success of the Dutch in their long struggle for liberty against Spain. It made England ~~as~~ famous as she had been in the days of Crecy and Agincourt. And this time she won glory in a better cause. But Philip was stubborn, and made many efforts to undo his defeat. There was war between England and Spain for fifteen years more. But as time went on the Spaniards found out the English fashion of fighting, and the later expeditions of Elizabeth were by no means so successful as her earlier ones. Finally, the war grew slack, and many believed that the time to make peace was come. But the friends of fighting carried the day, and there was no peace so long as the old queen lived.

**The war
with Spain
between
1588 and
1603**

27. One of the great events at the end of the reign was the conquest of Ireland by the English. During the later Middle Ages, Ireland had been practically independent. There was an English Government at Dublin, but its power only extended to a small district called the *Pale*. Most of Ireland was ruled by the chiefs of the native Irish clans, such as the *O'Neills* of Eastern and Central Ulster, and the *O'Donnells* of Donegal. The rest was governed by the descendants of the feudal lords who had conquered Ireland in the days of Henry II. The foremost of these Norman houses was that of *Fitzgerald*, whose heads were the Earls of *Kildare* and the Earls of *Desmond*. Next to this mighty family came the *Butlers*, whose head was

**The
Elizabethan
conquest of
Ireland**

Earl of *Ormond*, and whose lands lay between those of the two branches of the house of Fitzgerald. The Wars of the Roses reduced the English power to a very low ebb, and under Henry VII. every pretender had found a welcome there. Henry VIII. began, as we saw, the increase of the English power. Elizabeth now trod in her father's footsteps. She put down



IRELAND UNDER THE TUDORS

several Irish risings with great cruelty, and sent Englishmen to settle in Ireland so that they might help her Government to keep the country quiet. But there were great difficulties in her way. In particular, the Irish would not listen to the English preachers

of Protestantism. In their hatred of England the Irish became more strenuous Roman Catholics than ever before, and for a long time got much help from Philip of Spain. Towards the end of Elizabeth's reign there was another formidable Irish rebellion. Clans like the O'Neills and the O'Donnells joined hands with their old eneĩĩēs, such as the Fitzgeralds and the other Norman houses. Things were made worse by the incompetence of the English leader. This was the *Earl of Essex*, the chief favourite of Elizabeth's old age, and a vain and rash youth, who made such bad blunders that he had to be recalled. He lost the queen's favour and planned a mad conspiracy to win it back again. His plot failed, and in 1601 he was beheaded as a traitor. A stronger general, *Lord Mountjoy*, carried out the work that he had failed in. The Irish rebellion at last was put down about the time that Elizabeth died. But the Irish hated the English, and were only kept obedient by main force.

Wales had already been united to England by Henry VIII. Under Elizabeth the Welsh were for the first time won over to Protestantism by native bishops. The *Bible* was translated into Welsh and so it became easy to preach Protestantism in their own language.

Wales

28. England had beaten the Spaniards, conquered the Irish, and was the chief Protestant power in Europe. Her ships were swarming, in every sea. Her trade was growing, and her prosperity was wonderful.

She became so much more wealthy that every class of the community was able to live more comfortable and luxurious lives.

**Glories of
the end of
Elizabeth's
reign**

The nobles built for themselves gorgeous palaces. The style chosen for these houses was Gothic, but this was curiously combined with details suggested by the Italian classic buildings of the time. This mixed style is called

Architecture

Elizabethan or *Jacobean*, and in most parts of England stately and magnificent country-houses built in this fashion can still be seen. But the improvements were perhaps still greater in the dwellings and habits of the ordinary people of the middle classes. Before this time a chimney, a pillow, a glass window, had been the rare luxury of the rich; but now the poor man had a chimney to carry off the smoke, a pillow to rest his head upon, glass windows, and better food and clothing. There had always been a rude

Luxury and Comfort

plenty. Even in the old days it had been noted that 'though the English have their houses built of sticks and dirt, they fare like kings.' But a more elegant and refined way of living now set in. People used forks with which to eat their food instead of carrying it to their mouths with their fingers. Carpets came in instead of the straw or rushes that had hitherto covered the floor even of great men's houses.

Travel

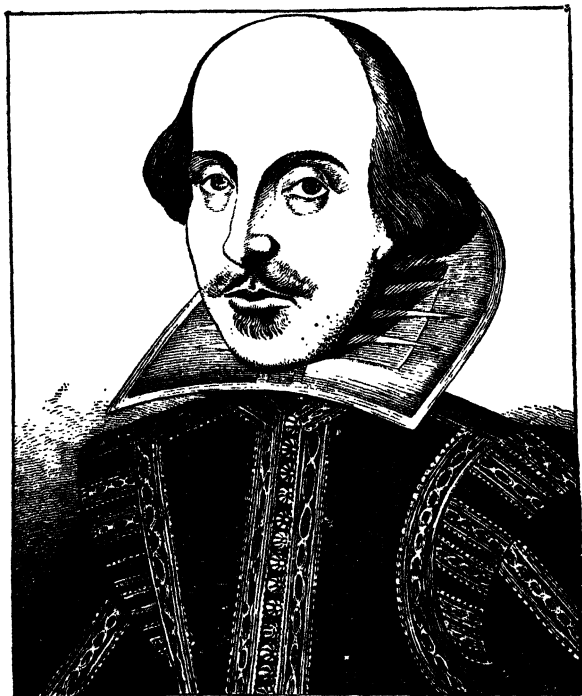
Instead of travelling on horseback, as everybody had done in earlier times, great lords and ladies had splendid coaches constructed so that they could get about with more comfort and less fatigue. But the coaches of Elizabeth's days were very cumbrous and heavy, and we should probably not have regarded them as very comfortable, especially on the bad roads of those days.

29. It was not only in such ways as these that England became an easier and happier place to live in.

Elizabethan literature

Men were more active and enterprising than they had been. They were also more thoughtful, more interested in knowledge and learning. It was the time of a great literature. There were a large number of writers of wonderful plays, full of the energy, the restlessness, the power and genius of the age. It was the time of *William Shakespeare*, the greatest play-writer that ever lived; of *Edmund Spenser*, the eloquent poet of triumphant

Protestantism; of *Richard Hooker*, the grave and wise defender of the English Church; and of *Francis Bacon*, the most judicious of essayists and the boldest of philosophers. All these things have made what have



WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE
(From the Doreshout Portrait)

been called the 'spacious days of great Elizabeth' a period in history of which every Englishman should still be proud. And the splendour of the age was still at its highest when, in 1603, Elizabeth ended her long reign.

ENGLAND IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

30. The Tudor period saw the end of the middle ages and the beginnings of modern times. It was a time of great changes—the birth of new thought and learning and of the Reformation of the Church. England was a very different place in 1603 from what it was when Henry VII. came to the throne. The Tudors were strong rulers and had taught the country to look to the king for a lead. They had broken the power of the old feudal nobility, by the laws which prevented livery and maintenance, by fines through the Star Chamber, and by executions. They had raised up to take their place a generation of new men, country gentlemen who looked to the king for advancement, and would serve him faithfully. The Church too had come to depend on the king. The outposts of the papacy, the monasteries with their powerful landed abbots had been swept away, and the land given to the new men. The bishops too now depended, more than ever before, on the king. The country was held in a firm grip by the councils which the Tudors developed. The North was ruled by the council of the North from York, while the Marches were under the control of the council of Wales. The Star Chamber Court dealt with the nobles and the Court of High Commission with religious offenders. Below the councils were the Justices of the Peace, unpaid magistrates on whom the king relied for all the ordinary work of the land, and who were constantly kept up to the mark by the council. In London the king had his own council, a small group of ministers, who were always in attendance on him. But though the rule was firm it was not a tyranny. The Tudor rule was on the whole popular, and they made it a point to consult their parliament. Thus,

**Government
under the
Tudors**

**Government
by Councils**

under Henry VIII. and again under Elizabeth, parliament steadily gained power, and towards the end of Elizabeth's reign there were several clashes between queen and parliament. A new period was at hand. With the accession of the Stewarts, king and parliament were to come into open opposition in the struggle for power.

The suppression of the monasteries did much to uproot the old social and economic order. Yet class distinctions remained strong, even when it was easier to rise from one class to another. The gentry were still a class apart from the rest of the community; but the professional and merchant classes were attaining increased importance. Trade grew, and with it the wealth and importance of the merchants, until the highest classes in the land became infected with the commercial spirit. The result was the wonderful rising of the material standards of comfort and civilization. Education became wider and affected larger classes of society. Travel was facilitated by the better protection of the seas that kept down piracy. We have already read how literature also flourished. It was thus the richest, fullest and most heroic period of English History.

**Social and
Economic
changes**

QUESTIONS

1. Tell what you know of the character of Elizabeth. What was her religious settlement? What was the nature of the settlement?
2. Who were the Puritans? How were they treated by Elizabeth?
3. What religious changes were introduced by John Knox in Scotland? Why was Mary, Queen of Scots, de-throned? What claim had she to the throne of England? Why was she executed by Elizabeth?

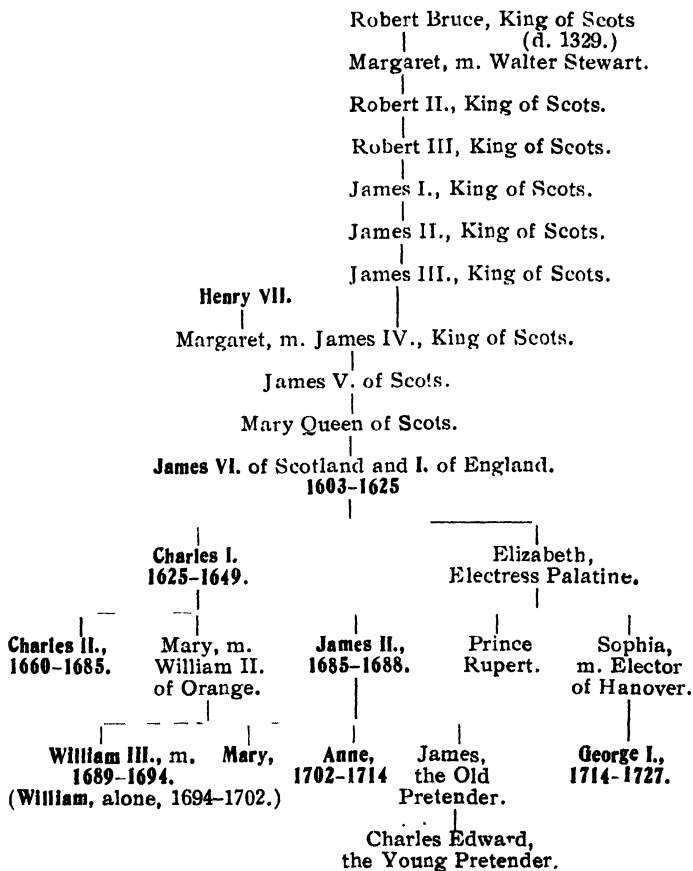
4. What do you understand by the Counter Reformation movement? Why were the Catholics persecuted by Elizabeth?

5. What led to the War between England and Spain? How did it end?

6. Tell what you know of Hawkins, Drake and Raleigh.

7. The Tudor period is said to be an age of government by councils. Mention the councils of the time.

GENEALOGY OF THE STEWART KINGS IN SCOTLAND AND ENGLAND



BOOK VI

THE HOUSE OF STEWART, 1603-1714

CHAPTER XXVI

James I., 1603-1625
(Married Anne of Denmark)

Principal Dates :

- 1603. Accession of James I.
- 1605. Gunpowder Plot.
- 1607. Foundation of Virginia.
- 1614. The Addled Parliament.
- 1618. Beginning of the Thirty Years' War. Execution of
Raleigh.
- 1620. Landing of Pilgrim Fathers.
- 1621. Fall of Bacon.
- 1623. Charles's voyage to Madrid.
- 1625. Death of James I.

1. James Stewart, the son of Mary Queen of Scots, and the great-great-grandson of Henry VII., began the line of Stewart kings in England. The change from one house of kings to another is not a great thing in itself. But it was soon clear that things had altered very much when James I. succeeded Elizabeth.

**James I. as
King of
Great
Britain and
Ireland**

It was for one thing very important that England and Scotland were now ruled by the same king. James had been James VI. of Scotland from the time he was a few months old. After he had been proclaimed King of England, he took upon himself the title of



KING JAMES I.

(From a Painting by P. Van Somer, dated 1621, in the National
Portrait Gallery)

King of Great Britain. This was but a first step towards further projects. Not content with the union of the crowns, James also wanted to unite the laws, Church, and Parliament of the two countries. But neither the English nor the Scots liked this, and it took a hundred years before a fuller union was brought about. And at the moment of James's accession the conquest of Ireland was completed. Thus James was no mere King of England, but king over all the three kingdoms. However, the union of the kingdoms was not as yet very thorough. The Irish in particular were bitterly hostile to the English. Hoping to make Ireland more like England, James established in Ulster, hitherto the wildest and most independent part of Ireland, colonies of English and Scottish Protestants. This was the famous Plantation of Ulster, which resulted in the setting up of a Protestant and English district, which still endures in the north-east of Ireland.

2. New England began to spring up beyond the ocean. Attempts at founding colonies under Elizabeth had failed. But while James was on the throne several English colonies were set up in the east of North America. The first of these was Virginia. This land had already been named by Raleigh in honour of Elizabeth. It was in 1607 permanently settled by the English. Even earlier than this a few Englishmen occupied the little island of Barbados in the West Indies. Both Virginia and Barbados had warm climates, and their chief crops were tobacco in Virginia and sugar in Barbados. Finding it hard to get white men to work in the sugar and tobacco fields, the planters gradually fell back on negro slaves.

3. Other colonies were established further north. The first of these was the little colony of New Plymouth, set up in 1620 by a band of Puritan Separatists, who found that James would give them no more free-

The begin-
nings of
English
colonies in
America

dom of worship than Elizabeth. The founders of this colony were called the *Pilgrim Fathers*, and the ship in which they sailed to their new homes was named the *Mayflower*.) Before long these Puritan settlers had English neighbours, the most important of the new provinces being that of *Massachusetts*, of which Boston was the capital. These *northern colonies* were all called *New England*. They differed very much from the southern colonies like Virginia. The settlers were Puritan in religion, being for the most part Independents. They lived by cultivating their own little farms, by fishing, or by trading. They were more energetic, robust, and determined than the southerners. While in Virginia great planters ruled over many slaves, in New England there was more equality and more liberty. England was so far off in those days that James could not prevent the colonies doing what they wished. After his death fresh colonies were gradually established, so that during the Stewart period nearly all the east coast of North America was planted with English settlers. There is no event so important in this period as was this first beginning of the Greater Britain which has since been extended over nearly every region of the earth.

The Puritan colonies in New England

4. During these same years English trade grew apace, side by side with English colonisation. In 1600 Elizabeth had issued a charter establishing the *East India Company*. The shrewd and daring English merchants soon began to carry on a great trade with India and the Far East. The impetus given by the great age of Elizabeth was gradually building up the modern England of adventure, commerce, colonies and empire.

The East India Company

5. England also saw great changes during the reign of James I. The Tudor kings had been almost

despotic rulers. Yet they had been popular, since England had been well content to obey strong kings.

**The struggle
between the
Stewart
kings and
their Parliaments**

But since the great awakening under Elizabeth, Englishmen began to think and act for themselves. They felt that they ought to have some say in the government of the country, and they grew suspicious of their kings. The result was a struggle between the Stewart kings and their Parliaments. This contest was the greatest feature of the Stewart period, and went on from reign to reign. Sometimes king, sometimes Parliament, seemed to have won. James's son, Charles I., lost his life, and a Republic was for a time set up. Then Charles's son, Charles II., was welcomed as king. Yet the struggle still continued, and the great contest was not ended until Charles II.'s brother, James II., had been driven from the throne. Then it ceased because Parliament had beaten the king, and henceforth made itself the strongest power in the English State.

6. This struggle was hastened by the want of wisdom of the Stewart kings. James I. began badly enough.

**Character
and policy
of James I.**

He was a foreigner who never quite understood English habits. He was indeed clever, well read, learned, and also a great writer of books. But he was very resolute in all his ways, obstinate, conceited, lazy, and hesitating. He was fond of living in retirement, and played a poor part when he came before his subjects, being shy, awkward, and undignified. He admired Queen Elizabeth ~~very much~~, and wanted to continue her policy. But while Elizabeth always cared for her people, and strove to give them what was good for them, James thought mostly about himself, and always seemed to imagine that if a thing were good for his subjects it would be bad for himself. Englishmen could care little for such a king.

7. The Puritans and Roman Catholics had both expected that James would treat them better than Elizabeth had done, and were disappointed to find that he was as hard to them as the queen. Thus it was that some of the keenest Puritans fled over sea to America. But the mass of the Puritans did not want so much as the Pilgrim Fathers. They did not wish to have separate churches and services of their own. But they did desire to alter the fashion of the English Church, and were very angry when James showed as much love of bishops and surplices as Elizabeth had done. They were numerous in the country and strong in Parliament. Parliament grumbled all the more since it disagreed with James's religious policy as well as with his way of ruling the state.

**James I. and
the Puritans**

8. The Roman Catholics were still worse off. Despairing of making their position better by fair means a few hot-headed Catholics formed a plot to blow up king, Lords, and Commons. On 5th November 1605 the Commons were to go to the House of Lords to see the king open Parliament. The conspirators hired some cellars under the House of Lords, and piled up gunpowder in them in order to destroy king and Parliament. This was called the Gunpowder Plot. Guy Fawkes, a daring soldier, was chosen to set fire to the powder. But before the 5th of November, the plot was discovered. Fawkes was taken prisoner in his cellar. The other conspirators tried to raise a revolt. No one, however, would join them, and they were soon taken and executed. Most of the Roman Catholics were innocent of any share in the plot, but many of them suffered severely from the rash act. The cruel laws against them were rigidly enforced until men forgot everything about the crime.

**James
and the
Catholics.
The
Gunpowder
Plot**

9. James was very good-natured, and was always giving his friends money, estates, and titles. This weakness made him all the more dependent on Parliament. But he never quite saw this, and while asking Parliaments constantly for money, he was always lecturing them on the wonderful dignity which belonged to a king, or telling them that, if he chose, he might put an end to the power of Parliament altogether. The result was a long series of petty disputes. One of James's Parliaments, that of 1614, only sat for a few weeks, and was then ended, or dissolved, by the king because it was so obstinately opposed to him. It did not so much as pass a single law. For this reason it was called the Addled Parliament. After this failure James ruled without a Parliament for over seven years.

10. James's chief minister was Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, the son of the great Lord Burghley, and the ancestor of the Lord Salisbury who became the last Prime Minister of Queen Victoria. But James never trusted his ministers as Elizabeth had done. He preferred to follow the advice of favourites, amusing and good-looking young men, who would do exactly as he told them, and would never want to have their own way. The first of these favourites was a Scotchman named Robert Carr. But Carr fell into disgrace for having joined with his wife in plotting a cruel murder, and James would have no more to do with him. His place was taken by George Villiers, a handsome, proud, and energetic young man, who soon quite won over the king's heart: Villiers received great estates, and became Duke of Buckingham. He was the more powerful since he was as friendly with Charles, the Prince of Wales, as he was with the old king. Buckingham and Charles were much the same age, and had the same tastes and pursuits. James used to call

**James I.
and his
Parliaments**

**James's
favourites
and
ministers**

Buckingham ('Steenie,' and his son 'Baby Charles'. Though Buckingham was not a bad man, his sudden rise rather turned his head. He became proud and overbearing, and was very generally hated.



SIR FRANCIS BACON, KT.

(From an Engraving by Simon Pass, in the Print Room of the British Museum)

11. While Buckingham was all-powerful, James seldom listened to the advice of his wise Lord Chancellor, Bacon. Bacon was a great writer and a famous philosopher. He was also a good lawyer and a far-sighted statesman. But he was too eager to get on and make money. In 1621 a new Parliament,

which ~~was disgusted with James, attacked the Lord Chancellor for receiving presents from those whose~~ cases he was going to try. After the fashion of Edward III.'s days the Commons *impeached* or accused Bacon before the Lords. He confessed his guilt, was convicted, and driven from office.

**The fall of
Bacon**

12. James I. was fond of peace, and quickly ended the long war with Spain. He was a Protestant and the Spaniards were Catholics, but he thought that his foreign policy ought not to be influenced by religion. He therefore desired to keep on good terms with the Spaniards, though most of his Protestant subjects hated Spain, and could not understand why James should seek her friendship. But at last James proposed that his son Charles should marry the Spanish king's daughter. Protestants in England hated the idea of their future king marrying a Roman Catholic. But there were so many difficulties in arranging the match that years passed away, and the negotiations seemed likely to last indefinitely.

**James I.'s
alliance
with Spain**

13. Early in James's reign Sir Walter Raleigh, one of the most famous of the Elizabethan heroes, had become mixed up with a conspiracy, and had been condemned to death. But James only shut him up in the Tower. For years the bold soldier languished in imprisonment. Eager to be free, he suggested to James that he should be allowed to lead an expedition up the river *Orinoco*, in South America, where he said that there were rich gold-mines, from which he could refill James's empty purse. The king was delighted at this easy way of getting rich, and let Raleigh go, telling him, however, that he must on no account attack the Spaniards, or occupy lands belonging to the Spanish king. Unluckily, all that part of America was claimed

**Raleigh's
last voyage
and
execution**

by Spain, and Raleigh soon got into conflict with the Spaniards, who stopped him from going up the Orinoco. After this he was forced to return to England. Though he brought no gold there was the prospect of a quarrel with Spain. James, however, was resolved not to break with the Spanish king. In 1618 he ordered Raleigh to be put to death under the sentence passed fifteen years before. To most Englishmen James seemed to be a mean coward in thus abandoning Raleigh to the Spanish fury.

14. James soon had other troubles to face. His daughter Elizabeth was married to a German Protestant prince called the Elector Palatine. In 1618 a war broke out in Germany between the Protestants and Catholics, called the *'Thirty Years' War* because it lasted all that time. Before long the Catholics drove Elizabeth and her husband from their dominions, and James was very anxious to have them restored. But he foolishly thought that the best way to get this done was by pressing on his Spanish alliance. However, the more eager James was the less eager were the Spaniards. After years of waiting prince Charles grew impatient, and started off to Spain with his friend Buckingham in order to woo the princess in person. But at Madrid he soon found out that the Spaniards were fooling himself and his father, and that there was no chance of his getting a Spanish wife unless he gave the Catholics in England more liberty than any one was willing they should have. In a great rage Charles went home to England, and soon afterwards forced his father to go to war with the treacherous Spaniards. Before much was done, however, James I. died in 1625.

The last
years of
James I.

QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by the 'Plantation of Ulster'? Mention the names of the colonies that were formed in America

during the time of James I. Who were the first settlers? For what purpose were the colonies formed?

2. What do you know about the character of James I.? Why did he and his parliaments quarrel?

3. Why were the Puritans and Catholics dissatisfied with James I.? How did they show their discontent?

4. Tell what you know about the relation of James I. with Spain. Who were Bacon and Raleigh?

CHAPTER XXVII

Charles I., 1625-1649

(Married Henrietta Maria of France)

Principal Dates :

- 1625. Accession of Charles I.
- 1628. Petition of Right.
- 1629-30. Charles rules without a Parliament.
- 1637. The Ship-money judgment, and the Scottish Prayer Book.
- 1640. The Long Parliament meets.
- 1641. Irish Rebellion.
- 1642. The Civil War begins. Battle of Edgehill.
- 1643. Battle of Newbury.
- 1644. Battle of Marston Moor.
- 1645. Battle of Naseby and Philiphaugh.
- 1646. Charles surrenders.
- 1648. Second Civil War.
- 1649. Execution of Charles I.

1. The Prince of Wales now became Charles I. He was dignified, good-looking, grave, temperate, and religious. But he was neither wise nor clear-headed, and could not understand another man's point of view. He had much faith in himself, but little in his people. He was not straightforward, and, though obstinate, had great difficulty in making up his mind. Like his father, he had a firm belief in the *Divine Right* theory of kings. He maintained that he was appointed ruler by God, and his powers could not be limited by the laws passed by the people. He declared that he was not answerable to them for his actions and insisted upon complete obedience to his will. But his friendship for Buckingham prevented him from being trusted by his subjects. Moreover, he expected that Parliament, which had always shown great enmity to Spain, would give him plenty of money to fight

**Charles I.
quarrels
with Spain
and with his
Parliaments**

her. But Charles's first two Parliaments hated Buckingham, and refused to grant Charles any taxes as long as he trusted to Buckingham's advice. Charles would not give up his friend, and felt indignant that



KING CHARLES I.
(From a Painting by Van Dyck)

Parliament would not help him to carry on a war which it approved. He soon dissolved each Parliament. It looked as if he was going to fight his Parliaments as well as the Spaniards. But it was foolish for a king who had so little to attempt to do so much.

2. Early in his reign Charles married *Henrietta Maria*, sister of Louis XIII., King of France. The marriage ensured him French support against the Spaniards, but it was not a popular one since the queen was a Roman Catholic. But Charles so mismanaged things that before long he quarrelled with his brother-

**Charles's
quarrel
with France**



QUEEN HENRIETTA MARIA, WIFE OF CHARLES I
(from a Painting by Jan Dyck)

in-law, the French king, as well as with the King of Spain. He now had wars with both France and Spain and utterly failed in both.

3. Charles could not pay his way, and in 1628 was

forced to summon his third Parliament. Led by a Cornish gentleman named Sir John Eliot, the Commons drew up a document called the **The Petition of Right** Petition of Right. In this they required that Charles should never raise taxes or forced loans without the consent of Parliament, never rule his subjects by martial or military law, and never put any one into prison without lawful reason. After some hesitation Charles accepted the Petition. Parliament then granted him a large sum of money.

4. **The murder of Buckingham, and Charles's final quarrel with his third Parliament** Soon after this, Buckingham was murdered. But the king's policy remained the same, so that people saw that the fault had always been with Charles rather than with the Duke. Parliament began to grumble afresh when it heard that, despite the Petition of Right, the king was still levying some duties called tunnage and poundage, for which he had never received a grant. They were still more angry with the sort of men whom Charles made bishops. Many of these belonged to a new party in the Church, called from their teacher, a Dutchman named Arminius, the Arminian party, which was very much opposed to the Puritans. When Parliament met again, there was a stormy scene. Charles ordered the House of Commons to adjourn. But the Commons shut the door in the face of the king's messenger. The Speaker, afraid of the king's wrath, got up from his chair and was about to end the sitting; but two members held him down in his seat, and forced him to allow the House to continue. Eliot carried through a resolution declaring that all who paid tunnage and poundage, and all who favoured the king's Arminian way of thinking in religion, were enemies of the kingdom. Then the doors were opened and the king's messenger let in. Parliament was dissolved and Eliot was thrown into the Tower, where

he died of an illness brought about by the harshness of his imprisonment.

5. For eleven years Charles ruled without a Parliament. He made peace with France and Spain, so that he had no longer so much need for heavy taxes as in previous years. But he continued to levy tunnage and poundage, and he revived various old-fashioned rights of the crown, out of which he could make money. One of these was *ship-money*. Charles quite wisely wished to make the British navy strong enough to protect his shores from invasion. But instead of calling on Parliament to provide him with funds, he revived an ancient claim of the crown to require the different counties to build ships for the king, or to pay him money that he might get them made. *John Hampden*, a Buckinghamshire gentleman, refused to pay this tax. But in 1637 the case came before the judges and they decided that the king had a right to levy it. Hampden's resistance to ship-money stirred up much opposition to Charles.

**Charles rules
without a
Parliament**

Ship-money

6. Charles's chief adviser in Church matters was *William Laud*, Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud was a very learned, hard-working, and energetic man, who really wished to make things better in the Church. But he was narrow-minded and meddlesome, and was more opposed to the Puritans than any of the earlier archbishops. He was the leader of the Arminians, and thinking that the Puritans had no right to be inside the Church at all, he did his best to turn them out of it. He loved elaborate ritual and stately ceremonies. The Puritans thought that Laud was no good Protestant, but a Roman Catholic in disguise. This was not the case, for Laud was as much opposed to the Pope as he was to the Puritans.

**Laud and
the Puritans**

7. For the moment Laud had the upper hand. He

could compel the Puritans to obey him by means of the High Commission Court and the Star Chamber.

The High Commission Court and the Star Chamber

The High Commission Court, first set up by Elizabeth was a Church court in which the king carried out that royal supremacy which he had inherited from the Tudors.

The Star Chamber had done good work in Tudor times in putting down turbulent and disorderly nobles. It now inflicted very cruel punishments on all who opposed the king and the archbishop.

8. After Laud, Charles's chief adviser was Sir Thomas Wentworth, a Yorkshire gentleman, who had taken part in the attack on Buckingham, but had afterwards gone over to the king and become Governor of Ireland. He was

Wentworth in Ireland

a hard, able man, who disliked half measures. He ruled Ireland wisely and firmly, but roughly, and put down all opposition with an iron hand. Laud and Wentworth were close friends, and called the system which they believed in 'Thorough'. They thought that Charles was weak in not carrying on things with such a high hand as they did.

9. Scotland gave Charles a great deal of trouble. James I. had brought back bishops to the Scottish

The Scottish Prayer Book, and the National Covenant

Church, much to the disgust of the Presbyterians. Charles went further, and in 1637 ordered that the Scots should give up their own simple form of worship and use in their churches a Prayer Book, drawn up

by Laud, and based upon the English Prayer Book. All Scotland rose up in rebellion. The Scottish clergy refused to read the new Prayer Book. They met together in the general council of the Church of Scotland which was called the General Assembly, and declared that they would have neither bishops nor Prayer Book in their Presbyterian Church. They also drew up in 1638 a document called the National

Covenant, by which they pledged themselves to resist 'Popery, Prelacy, and all superstition'.

10. Charles was helpless against the Scots, and had no troops to enforce his will on a whole nation. He strove to stir up the old ill-feeling between the English and the Scots. On two occasions he managed to raise an army. But he soon found that he had wasted his funds in collecting soldiers who would not fight. He was forced to make peace with the Scots and accept all that they had done. But he was not only beaten in Scotland. The Scots had shown the English how they might resist if they wished. And the cost of the campaigns had reduced Charles to beggary.

**The Scots
successfully
resist
Charles**

11. Charles recalled Wentworth from Ireland and made him Earl of Strafford and chief minister. But Strafford saw no way to get money except by calling Parliament together. This was done in the spring of 1640, but Parliament would give Charles nothing, unless he changed his way of ruling. Charles would not do this, and dissolved it. This Parliament sat so brief a time that it was called the Short Parliament. But in November 1640 Charles was forced to assemble another Parliament. This body lasted in a way for nearly twenty years, and was therefore called the Long Parliament. These twenty years witnessed more changes than any other period of English history.

**The Meeting of the
Long Parliament**

12. Before the meeting of the Long Parliament Charles had done what he pleased. He was now powerless. Led by Hampden, the hero of the ship-money struggle, and by John Pym, a wise and eloquent man, the Commons set to work to break down the whole system of Charles's government. They abolished the Star Chamber and the High Commission Courts. They declared that the decision

**The Long
Parliament
destroys
Charles I.'s
system of
government**

of the judges in favour of ship-money was bad law. They impeached Strafford and Laud, the chief ministers of Charles's tyranny.

13. Laud's trial was put off, but Strafford was at once brought up before the Lords. It was very hard to prove him guilty of any legal offence.

Attainder of Strafford

The Commons accused him of treason, but his crime was against the country, and the only treason known to the law was treason against the king, whom Strafford had served but too well. Before long the Commons dropped the impeachment and drew up what was called a Bill of Attainder. This was simply a new law enacting that the person mentioned in it should be executed. Henry VIII. had found Acts of Attainder a convenient way of getting rid of his enemies. The Commons now fell back on one of the worst examples of the most violent of kings. But they carried through their will. As a new law, the Bill had to pass through both the Lords and the Commons, and then to receive the royal assent. The two Houses willingly passed it, but Charles had promised Strafford that not a hair of his head should be touched. Yet when it came to the point he thought more of himself than of his minister. After some hesitation he gave his consent, and Strafford was beheaded. Four years afterwards the aged Laud suffered the same fate.

14. In 1641 a terrible rebellion broke out in Ireland. After Strafford's iron hand had been withdrawn, the native Irish rose against the Protestant settlers, and revenged themselves for long oppression by working all kinds of horrors. The story of the doings of the Catholic rebels was told with much exaggeration in England, and was used by the Puritans to blacken the cause of the king, who was married to a Catholic wife, and was thought too friendly to Catholics.

The Irish Rebellion

15. Meanwhile in England, the Long Parliament which had been of one mind in destroying the royal despotism, broke up into parties when the question arose how the Church was to be managed in the future. One party, headed by the thoughtful and pious Lord Falkland, and a lawyer named Edward Hyde, was content if the changes brought in by Laud were abolished. But the majority of the Commons followed Pym and Hampden in approving of what was called the Root and Branch Bill. This was a scheme for abolishing bishops and the Prayer Book, and making the English Church Presbyterian like the Church of Scotland. It was carried through the House of Commons by a small majority.

**The
Root and
Branch Bill**

16. Charles had now again a chance. If he could persuade the party of Hyde and Falkland that he had really given up his old policy, he might easily have won back power as the upholder of the Church as established by Elizabeth. Angry that Charles was again getting dangerous, Pym and Hampden asked the Commons to pass what they called the Grand Remonstrance, a long document in which all the old grievances against him were once more brought forward. Hyde and Falkland objected to raking up these matters afresh. After a hot debate the Grand Remonstrance was carried, but only by a majority of eleven. The once unanimous Commons were now nearly evenly divided.

**The
Grand Re-
monstrance**

17. Charles as usual proved his own worst enemy. He soon proved by his foolish acts that Pym and Hampden had been right when they said that the king could never be trusted. He went down to the House of Commons, and, accusing Pym and Hampden and three of their friends of treason, strove to arrest them. But the five members had fled to the city of London,

**The Arrest
of the Five
Members**

and this only increased the deep distrust felt for the treacherous king. So hot was the feeling against him that Charles had to leave London. For a long time efforts were made to bring about a reconciliation. The Commons insisted that Charles should only be king in name, and leave all power in their hands. Many of those who had followed Hyde and Falkland, and all those who hated the Puritans, began to rally round the king, so Charles thought he was still strong enough to refuse such bad terms. Thus king and Parliament could not agree, and the sword had to decide which was the stronger.

18. The Great Civil War, or the Great Rebellion, began in the summer of 1642 and lasted for more than four years. It was not simply a fight

**The Great
Rebellion**

between king and Parliament. Such a struggle would not have lasted so long or have been so nearly even. It was a contest between two nearly equal parties in the country, one of which was led by the king and the other by the majority of the House of Commons. But nearly half the Commons and more than half of the Lords were on the king's side, and neither the king's friends nor his enemies differed very much as to their ideas of how the country was to be ruled. Perhaps the clearest dividing line between the two parties was on the question of religion. All who loved bishops and the Prayer Book were for the king. All those thorough-going Puritans, who wanted to reform the Church root and branch, fought for the Parliament. The north and west of England and most of Wales were for the king. In London, the eastern and south-eastern counties, the majority was for the Parliament. The king's friends were called Cavaliers, that is, horsemen, or gentlemen; the Parliament's the Roundheads, because the Puritans cropped their hair short. But these were mere nicknames.

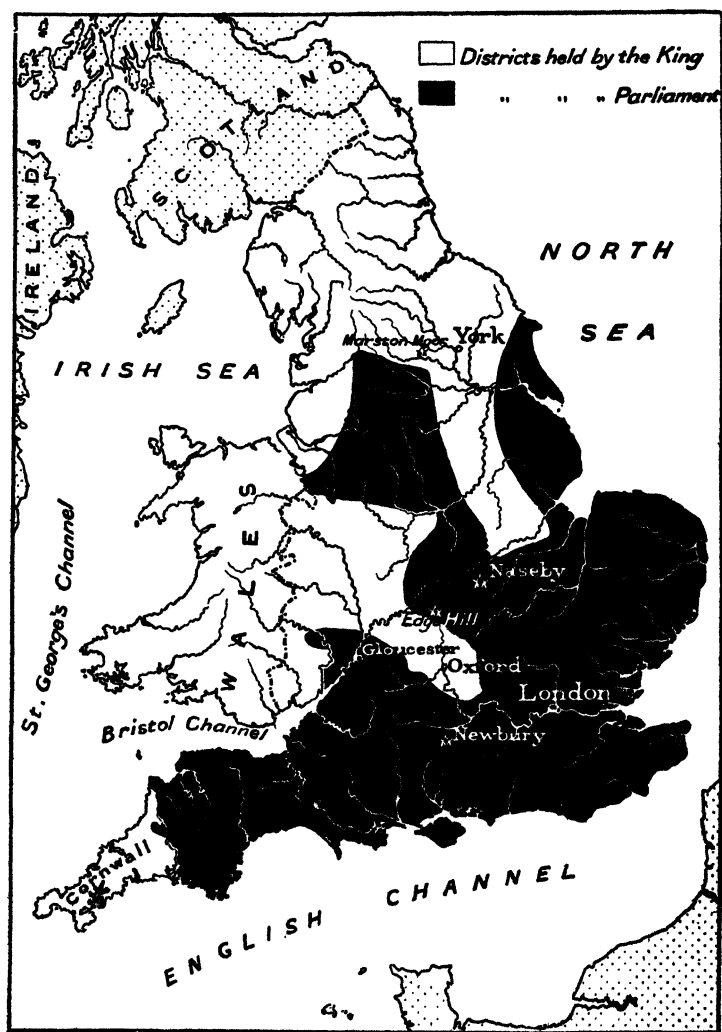
19. In the early part of the struggle the king did better than the Parliament. Charles began the war in the Midlands and marched southwards towards London. The Earl of Essex, the Parliamentary general, tried to stop him. This led to the first battle of the war at Edgehill. Neither party gained a decided victory. But Essex retreated during the night. This enabled Charles to march on to Oxford, which he made his capital.

**The Battle
of Edgehill**

20. In 1643 Charles's successes continued. His generals conquered the north and the west. Hampden was slain, while Pym died worn out with work and worry. But Essex was able to prevent Gloucester falling into the king's hands, and secured his way back to London by fighting the battle of Newbury, in which Falkland perished. So even were both parties that there seemed no early hope of ending the struggle. Accordingly the Parliament made a treaty with the Scots called the Solemn League and Covenant, by which the Scots army was sent to their help in return for a promise to make the English Church Presbyterian.¹ In 1644 the Scots joined the Parliamentary army. Prince Rupert of the Rhine, the dashing son of Charles's sister Elizabeth, was sent by his uncle to stay their progress. The two armies fought the first decisive battle of the war at Marston Moor, near York. Rupert's cavalry nearly won the day, but a brilliant charge of the horsemen of the Puritan eastern counties under Oliver Cromwell changed the fortune of war, and the Royalists were completely defeated. Yet even after

**Gloucester,
Newbury,
and Marston
Moor**

¹ This Solemn League and Covenant of 1643, a treaty between the two nations, must be carefully distinguished from the purely Scottish National Covenant of 1638. But both documents aimed at the establishment of Presbyterianism, the earlier one in Scotland, and the later one in England as well.



ENGLAND AND WALES DURING THE GREAT CIVIL WAR
 (MAY 1643)

this Charles won victories in the south over the slow-minded Essex.

21. In Scotland the gallant Marquis of Montrose, inspired the fierce and warlike clans of the Highlands to fight for the king. At the head of his Highlanders Montrose won a marvellous succession of victories. But in 1645 he ventured to invade southern Scotland, and was so badly defeated at Philiphaugh that he fled to the Continent.

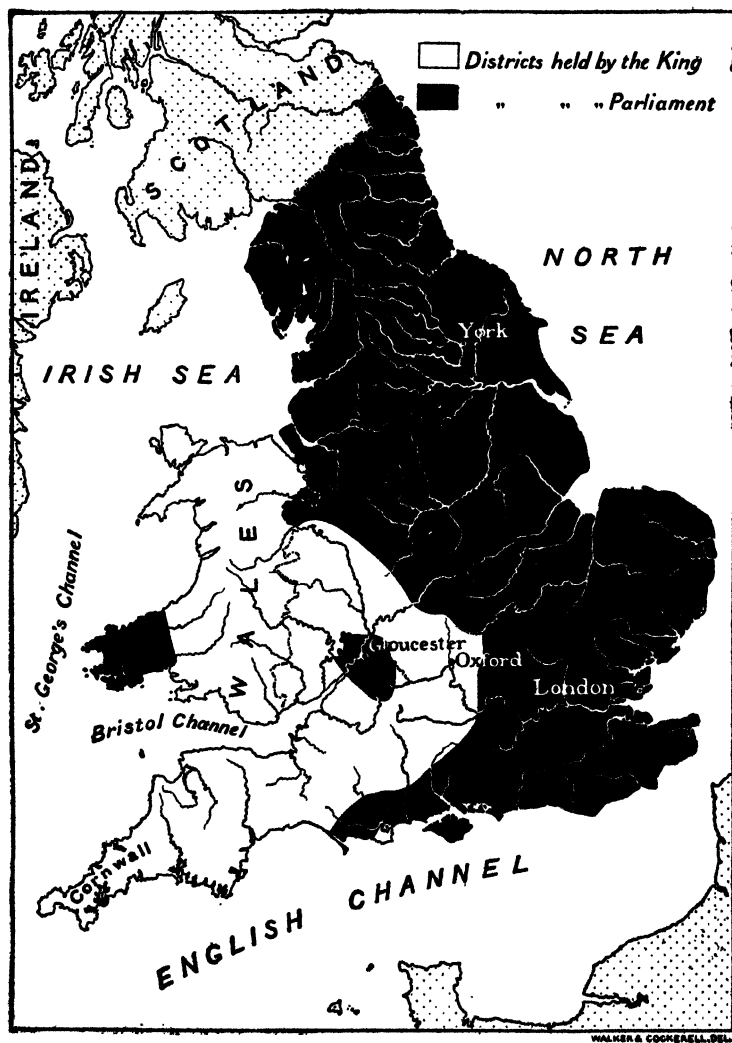
**Montrose's
victories and
defeat**

22. Cromwell had shown himself the best soldier of the Parliament. He was descended from a Welsh nephew of Thomas Cromwell, Henry VIII.'s minister. He had sat in Parliament, and when war broke out he won over the eastern counties to the Puritan cause.

**Cromwell
and the New
Model**

He was a thoroughly practical man, and he despised generals like Essex because they did not know how to carry the war through successfully. He now persuaded Parliament to accept a scheme for reorganising the army called the New Model. By this the drill, pay, and discipline were very much improved, and the red coats, already worn by Cromwell's men of the eastern counties, were adopted as the uniform of the army. The red coats, worn by English soldiers till recently, show that Cromwell's New Model was the starting-point of the modern British army. Moreover, Parliament passed the Self-denying Ordinance by which all members of Parliament, whether Lords or Commons were forced to resign their posts in the army. This got rid of Essex and the other half-hearted generals. In their stead Sir Thomas Fairfax, a Yorkshire gentleman, became commander-in-chief. But Cromwell, though a member of Parliament, was thought so necessary that he was allowed to retain his position in the army, and was made general of the horse.

23. In 1645 the New Model defeated Charles at



ENGLAND AND WALES DURING THE GREAT CIVIL WAR
(NOVEMBER 1644)

Naseby. This was practically the end of the war, though for a long time there were scattered garrisons that held out for the king. In 1646 Charles was so hard pressed that he was forced to surrender. He chose to yield himself to the Scots rather than to the English since he thought that he could get better terms from them. But the Scots, finding

**The Battle
of Naseby,
and the
defeat of
the king**



SOLDIER WITH MUSKET AND CRUTCH, ABOUT 1630

that he would not set up Presbyterianism in England, handed him over in disgust to the English and went home.

24. Even in his captivity Charles was still an important person. The Puritans had now broken up into two parties, called Presbyterian and Independent. The chief dispute was about the form which the government of the Church was to take. The Inde-

Presbyterians and Independents pendents disliked the rigid and intolerant Presbyterian system of the Scots, and believed that there should be more religious liberty, and that every Christian congregation should settle its own affairs. Parliament was mainly Presbyterian, but the Independents were stronger in the army. The result was a fierce quarrel between Parliament and the army, and each party tried to win the king to its side. But Charles, though he negotiated with both, remained true to neither.

The triumph of the Independents, and the execution of Charles I. 25. Before long the soldiers got the better of Parliament. Parliament had appealed to the sword, and it was but natural that the soldier should have the last word over the statesman. In 1648 the friends of Parliament now took up arms against the army which it had created. The struggle which ensued is sometimes called the *Second Civil War*. The Scots once more invaded England to help their Presbyterian friends, and there were Presbyterian risings. But Cromwell's soldiers easily scattered their enemies, and marching back in triumph to London, drove away all the Lords and Commoners at Westminster who favoured the Presbyterian party. Charles had latterly leant to that side, and the fierce Independent soldiers now denounced him as a traitor and a man of blood, who had caused the renewed fighting. The remnant of the Parliament, called the *Rump*, at the order of the soldiers set up a *High Court of Justice* to try the king. Charles declared that this court had no right to try its king. Nevertheless it passed sentence of death upon him. On 30th January 1649 Charles was beheaded outside his own palace. He died so nobly and piously that his incurable faults were almost forgotten.

QUESTIONS

1. What were the points of difference between Charles I. and his first two Parliaments? What was the Petition of Right? Mention the chief clauses of the document. Under what circumstances was the Parliament dissolved?

2. Who were the advisers of Charles I. during his arbitrary rule? What methods did he adopt to get money from the people? What was his religious policy? How did it bring him to trouble in Scotland?

3. Why was the Long Parliament so called? What steps did it take to break down Charles's system of government? Tell in a few lines what you know of Laud and Wentworth.

4. What causes—remote and immediate—brought about the Civil War? Mention the chief battles fought. Illustrate your answer with a sketch map. What part did Cromwell play in the war?

CHAPTER XXVIII

The Commonwealth and the Protectorate 1649-1660

Principal Dates :

- 1649. The Commonwealth proclaimed. Ireland conquered.
- 1650. Battle of Dunbar.
- 1651. Battle of Worcester.
- 1653. Cromwell made Protector.
- 1658. Death of Cromwell.
- 1660. Restoration of Charles II.

1. The Rump of the Long Parliament now proclaimed a Republic, or *Commonwealth*, as it was then called, and decided that England should henceforward be ruled without a king or House of Lords. This made the House of Commons the only governing body. But no general election was held. The Rump, less than a hundred strong, continued to act, though it in no sense represented the people. At first there was some excuse for this, since, though England was quiet, Ireland and Scotland were at war against the new English Government.

2. Since the rebellion of 1641 Ireland had been in a very disturbed state. As Charles's cause lost ground, his friends in Ireland made terms with the Roman Catholics, who were now the strongest party in Ireland. The Puritans, however, hated Papists far more bitterly than Charles I. had done, and resolved to stamp out the Irish Catholics. In 1649 Cromwell invaded Ireland. His strong, stern policy soon proved successful.

Proclamation of a Commonwealth

The Puritan conquest of Ireland

The first town that resisted him was *Drogheda*. On capturing it he brutally slew all its defenders. The Irish resistance was thus broken. The Puritan Commonwealth was set up in Ireland, and the Catholics were kept down with a firm hand. To strengthen the Protestant party, many of Cromwell's soldiers were settled in the lands forfeited by Irish Royalists or Catholics. Many of the native Irish were driven beyond the Shannon into Connaught. Henceforth Ireland was at peace, and with peace came some sort of prosperity. But no prosperity would reconcile the Irish to Cromwell's rule, which seemed to them even more cruel and bigoted than the government of Strafford.

3. In Scotland, as in England, Presbyterians were now Royalists, and the Presbyterians still ruled Scotland. At their request the dead king's son, the Prince of Wales, came to rule Scotland as Charles II. But the Rump resolved to drive him out. Fairfax now gave up the chief command, and Cromwell took his place. In 1650 Cromwell invaded Scotland, and cleverly defeated the Presbyterian army at *Dunbar*. In 1651 Charles marched into England, where he hoped the Royalists would join him. But most Englishmen were weary of fighting, and would not risk a fresh civil war. Charles II. got into the very heart of England, but few new recruits joined him. At *Worcester* Cromwell fell upon the Royalist army and scattered it with the utmost ease. He called this victory 'a crowning mercy.' It meant the end of fighting, for with this defeat of the Scots all the three kingdoms were brought under the rule of the Rump. The King of Scots (Charles II.) managed to reach France after narrow escapes on the way.

**The Battles
of Dunbar
and Worcester**

The Commonwealth had also other troubles to contend with. A war broke out with Holland which

266 **The Commonwealth and the Protectorate**

was brought about by the *Navigation Act* passed in 1651 by England. By it, foreign goods were to be brought into England either in English ships or **Dutch War** in ships of the country from which the goods came. This was intended to put down the



OLIVER CROMWELL

(From the Painting by Samuel Cooper at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge)

carrying trade of Holland and to improve the English Navy. Though at first beaten in the war that ensued, Blake won a decisive victory off Portland in 1653.

4. These victories made Cromwell and his soldiers more powerful than ever. They now began to quarrel

with the Rump, which they had set up a few years before. They said that the Rump ought to dissolve itself and let a real Parliament be elected.

They complained that instead of remaining friendly with the Dutch, who were also Protestants, the Rump had gone to war with them. They denounced the Rump for greediness and jobbery. At last, in 1653, Cromwell went down to the House of Commons, followed by a band of soldiers. He turned out the members, locked the door, and went home again. Nobody was sorry at the fate of the Rump. Still, with all its faults, it was all that was left of the Parliament of England. Thus the army had destroyed the Commons, the Monarchy and the Lords.

The expulsion of the Rump

5. Cromwell could now do what he liked. But he was anxious that England should not be controlled only by soldiers, though he was not willing that she should choose freely how she was to be ruled. His first idea was that the country ought to be governed by 'the saints,' that is, by men of strong Puritan views. He therefore gathered together a number of earnest Puritans to discuss with him what was to be done. This assembly is often called Barebones' Parliament, from a fanatical Puritan named Barbon, who sat in it. But it was no real Parliament, since its members were not chosen by the people but by Cromwell. It was so unpractical that Cromwell soon grew tired of it and persuaded it to separate.

The Barebones' Parliament

6. Cromwell and the officers now drew up a constitution for the country which was called the Instrument of Government. By it Cromwell was made Lord Protector with powers very much like a king, though without the title. He was to be helped by a Parliament consisting of a House of Commons only. Former

Cromwell's rule as Protector

Parliaments had represented England and Wales alone, but in this one, members sat for Ireland and Scotland as well, so that for a short time there was only one Parliament for every part of the British Islands. But Cromwell's plans did not work well. His Parliaments quarrelled with him almost as much as the Parliaments of Charles I. had quarrelled with the king. Cromwell was a firmer ruler than Charles, and treated his Parliaments more roughly than the king had dared to do. However, he was very anxious to seem to be a constitutional ruler, and did not like to do without a Parliament. Yet in his next Parliament he allowed only his supporters to sit. This friendly Parliament changed the system of government. Cromwell was made more like a king than ever. He was indeed offered the title of king, but he refused it because his soldiers hated the very name. At the same time a sort of House of Lords was set up called the Other House, consisting of life peers. In fact the old Constitution was very nearly brought back, with Cromwell instead of Charles as king. But the people who wished for the old Constitution also desired to be ruled by Charles's son, and Cromwell's old friends were disgusted at their leader imitating so much of the ancient fashion. The result was that Cromwell nearly fell between two stools. But he was so active, bold, and able that his plan of government outlasted his life, though most people disliked it.

7. Cromwell showed that he was as great a statesman as a general. He tried to settle the Church question

**Cromwell's
Puritan
Church
and
toleration**

by giving more toleration to different ways of thinking than any earlier Government had permitted. This was a very wise step, since there had always been great differences of opinion on Church matters since the Reformation, and it was only by allowing the various bodies of Christians to live peaceably side

by side that a real settlement could ever be made. Cromwell allowed Puritans of every sort, Presbyterians, Independents, and Baptists, to hold livings. He even permitted the Jews, who since Edward I.'s time had never been allowed to settle in England, to return to the country and to worship God after their own fashion. But he would not suffer Churchmen to use the Prayer Book, or Roman Catholics to hear Mass. This was not very consistent, but he knew that the Church and the Catholic parties wished to bring back Charles Stewart. So he was afraid to tolerate them. Cromwell also had many schemes for making people better and more virtuous, but he found it impossible to force men to be good by magistrates and soldiers.

8. Cromwell's foreign policy was a great success. He joined Louis XIV., the young King of France, in his war against Spain, whose power had been rapidly declining since the days of Philip II. and the Armada. Before long the New Model army made itself as much feared on the Continent as it had been by the Cavaliers. With Cromwell's help France soon defeated Spain and became the chief nation in Europe. England won back the great place she had held in the days of Elizabeth, and distinguished herself on the sea. Admiral Blake, who, in the days of the Rump, had fought very bravely against the Dutch, now won brilliant victories over the Spaniards. Blake had fought against Charles I., but he cared more for England than for party. 'It is not for us sailors,' he said, 'to mind state affairs but keep foreigners from fooling us.' He was one of the greatest English sailors who have ever lived. In Cromwell's days the island of Jamaica was taken from the Spaniards, and has ever since belonged to England.

Cromwell's
foreign
policy

9. All these things show that Cromwell was one of the best and wisest rulers England ever had. But

with all his greatness we must never forget that he ruled by the sword and not with the consent of the people.

Death of Cromwell

He was more of a despot than Charles I., but he was always efficient and honest. Most Englishmen hated him and his ways, and would have gladly got rid of him. Yet they could not help admiring much that he did, especially as regards foreign affairs. But he early wore himself out, and in 1658 died.

10. Richard Cromwell, Oliver's eldest son, was proclaimed Lord Protector, son succeeding father just as if they had been kings. He was an easy-going, weak man, who would not work hard. In a few months the army, which never loved him as it had loved his

Richard Cromwell's failure

father, drove him from power, and Richard was quite content to go. But the army did not know what to do. The generals began quarrelling with one another. So helpless were they that they at last resolved to bring back the Rump of the Long Parliament to power. But the Rump was as narrow and foolish as ever, and was as little able as the army to govern wisely. Everything seemed drifting into a hopeless muddle.

11. Wise men began to see that the only way to set things straight was to bring back the old king and the old Constitution. The first to realise

The Restoration of Charles II.

this was General Monk, a silent, cautious man, the commander of the army that garrisoned Scotland. He marched with his troops from Scotland to London, and said no word as to what he was going to do. But he saw that every one was sick of the Rump and the army. He therefore declared for a Free Parliament, that is, for a Parliament chosen freely by the electors and not one in which only those were allowed to sit who agreed with the Government. His action was welcomed with extraordinary enthusiasm. In the spring of 1660 the

freely chosen Parliament assembled. Its first step was to invite the son of Charles I. to take the throne of his ancestors. On 29th May 1660, his birthday, Charles II. entered London. This was called the *Restoration*. Never was there such rejoicing in England. The rule of the prim saints and the stern soldiers was over. The king had come back to his own again. There was no great danger of the young king proving so tyrannical as his father, since the good laws of the early sessions of the Long Parliament were still in force. Moreover, the Restoration was not only the Restoration of the old monarchy; it also meant the bringing back of the old Parliament, and before long it meant the bringing back of the old Church.

12. Two great names in English literature are remembered when we think of the Puritans. John Milton gained fame by his early poetry and by a defence of freedom of the press. He was employed as Secretary to Cromwell's government, despite his blindness, but at the Restoration fell on evil days.

Literature
of the
Common-
wealth
period

He was not persecuted by the new government, but lived on in poverty writing his most famous poems, *Paradise Lost*, and *Paradise Regained*. Visitors to London would make a point of calling to see the blind poet and would often find him sitting quietly in the sun before his house in one of the back streets of London. The other writer John Bunyan was a tinker's son who served for a time in the Army against the king. He felt the call to live a new life, and became a famous Independent teacher. After the Restoration he spent much time in prison as he would not obey the new laws about church-going. While in gaol he wrote the great story of *Christian* and his journey to a better world. Thus was written *Pilgrim's Progress*, an allegory which was to have an immense influence on every generation of Englishmen.

QUESTIONS

1. What sort of government was established after the execution of Charles I.? Tell how the troubles in Scotland and Ireland were overcome by Cromwell.
2. What was the 'Instrument of Government'? Tell how Cromwell carried on the administration in the country. What were his relations with Holland, France and Spain?

CHAPTER XXIX

Charles II., 1660-1685

(Married Catharine of Braganza)

Principal Dates :

- 1660. Accession of Charles II.
- 1665. First Dutch War, and the Plague.
- 1666. The Fire of London.
- 1667. Fall of Clarendon.
- 1670. Treaty of Dover.
- 1672. Second Dutch War.
- 1673. Rule of Danby begins. Test Act.
- 1678. The Popish Plot, and the Fall of Danby.
- 1679. Exclusion Bill brought in, and Habeas Corpus Act passed.
- 1683. Rye House Plot.
- 1685. Death of Charles II.

1. After the Restoration there still remained many questions to be settled. But Parliament had the main share in determining these, and Parliament was now thoroughly Royalist. All that had been done under the Commonwealth was looked upon as having no warrant in law. But a general pardon was given to all who had fought against Charles I. From this were excepted the members of the High Court that had sentenced the king. Several of these were executed as traitors. The bones of Cromwell and other dead judges of the king were dug up from their graves, and hung up on the common gallows. The Puritan army was broken up. However, a few regiments, both of horse and foot, were kept under arms to serve as a bodyguard for the restored king. These make the starting-point of the

**The
Restoration
Settlement**

modern army. Up to the Civil War there had been no standing army of regular soldiers in England. Ever since there has always been one, though at first



CHARLES II.

(From St. James's Palace)

it was very small. The union between England, Scotland, and Ireland which Cromwell had set up was ignored, and Scotland and Ireland had again their own Parliaments. But in Scotland the Presbyterians

were ~~badly treated, and bishops were brought back~~ in the Church. In Ireland the chief difference between the rule of the Restoration and that of Cromwell was that the English lords of Ireland were now Cavaliers and not Puritans. But in their eagerness to give back the king's Irish friends their property, the new governors of Ireland took away a great deal of land from the native Irish and granted it to Protestants.

2. The English Church was made what it had been before the Rebellion. The Prayer Book and Bishops were restored. There was some talk of making the Church broader, so as to include some of the Presbyterians, but nothing came of it. The party which now won the upper hand was, a few years after this, called the *High Church* party. But many of the Puritans conformed to the Church. These afterwards got the name of the *Low Church* party. However, a great number of Puritans were now permanently shut out of the Church, and those who now ruled it took no pains to keep them in. All the Puritan clergy were required to read the Prayer Book, and if they would not do so they were turned out of their livings. They were therefore forced to set up separate congregations of their own. These were now called *Dissenters*, because they disagreed with the Church, and *Separatists*, because they separated from it. Some of these were *Independents* and *Baptists*, who had already been Separatists under Charles I. Others were *Presbyterians*, who had long hoped to bring over the whole Church to their way of thinking. The Dissenters were also called *Nonconformists*, a word which had once meant the discontented Puritan members of the Church who refused to *conform* to its ceremonies. Now, however, it meant just the same thing as *Dissenter* or Separatist. But the Church had not learned

Settlement
of the
Church

tolerance during its days of suffering. The Dissenters were not allowed to build chapels of their own or meet together for worship. Parliament, which before the Civil War had favoured the Puritans, was now against them. It passed a series of laws which made things hard for the Nonconformists, and especially for their ministers, who often spent many years in prison.

3. Charles II. carried on Cromwell's foreign policy, and kept up the friendship between England and France. He married Catharine of Bra-

**Charles II.'s
foreign
policy**

ganza, the sister of the King of Portugal, the ally of France and the enemy of Spain.

But Charles could not hold his own with Louis XIV. in the same firm way that Cromwell had done. Moreover, the king of France was now so powerful that Englishmen began to be afraid of helping him to win more territory. So the French alliance became unpopular.

4. Charles was as careful to protect English commerce and colonies as Cromwell had been. During

**Colonies
and trade
under the
Restoration**

his reign English trade with the mainland of India developed rapidly. The first

settlement on the mainland had been at Surat in 1613. Fort St. George was founded on the Coromandel Coast by 1640 and under its protection grew up the city of Madras. Further north in 1651 the English had settled on the wealthy delta of the Ganges at Hughli, but it was not until 1690 that Calcutta was founded. Bombay was ceded by the Portuguese to Charles II. as part of the dowry of his wife Catharine of Braganza. Thus before the end of the century the three 'Presidency' towns were firmly established. The growth of our colonies and trade made us bad friends with the Dutch, the chief commercial nation of those days. England had already fought one war with the Dutch on questions of trade

during the Commonwealth. In 1665 it began another. Both were mainly waged at sea, and were very closely contested, for the Dutch navy was very famous, and the Dutch were exceedingly stubborn fighters. On one occasion the Dutch fleet sailed up the Medway and burnt some of the ships in Chatham Dockyard. But the English also fought very well, and when peace was signed, the advantages were pretty equally balanced. In America, England won the Dutch colony called New Amsterdam, which filled up the gap between New England and Virginia. It was given to the king's brother, James, Duke of York, and took from him the name of New York. This is the famous state and city which are nowadays the greatest in the United States of America. Other new colonies were set up. One, Carolina, took its name from Carolus, the Latin form of Charles's name. Another Pennsylvania, was founded by William Penn, a member of a new sect called Quakers, whose members refused to take oaths or to fight in the wars, and lived very hard-working, thrifty, and virtuous lives. As time went on the English took away from the Dutch much of their trade.

5. The chief adviser of Charles II. was Edward Hyde, the former friend of Falkland, who was now made Earl of Clarendon and Lord Chancellor. He was an honourable but stiff and old-fashioned man, and a strong upholder of the king and the Church. But Charles did not trust him overmuch. Though clever and shrewd beyond all the other Stewart kings, Charles bitterly disappointed those who had hoped great things from his return. He was lazy, selfish, extravagant, and pleasure-loving. Yet he was amusing, witty, and good-natured, so that he never altogether lost his popularity. But he set a very bad example to his subjects, which many of them did not fail to follow.

Clarendon
and
Charles II.

Grave men were disgusted at the bad government and wanton luxury of the court.

6. There was soon a great deal of grumbling, and misfortunes increased the discontent. The *Great Plague of London* raged during the hot summer of 1665. The disease proved terribly infectious and swept away many thousands of people. Next year another calamity fell upon the capital. The *Great Fire of London* ravaged the City from end to end, burning down many churches, including old St. Paul's. But some good came from the fire, for the houses, when rebuilt, were made more solid and the streets wider. Thus the City became more healthy and comfortable to live in. Fortunately there then lived a great architect named *Sir Christopher Wren*. He rebuilt many of the churchē in a very beautiful and elegant fashion. Wren was also the architect of the present St. Paul's Cathedral. The style he chose was the classic or Italian style. But majestic as Wren's new cathedral is, it could not altogether make up for the loss of the old Gothic St. Paul's, one of the finest churches in England, and full of memories of many periods of her history.

7. In 1667 Clarendon was driven from power and succeeded by five politicians nicknamed the *Cabal*.

The chief merits of the *Cabal* were that they wished to be more tolerant in religion and less friendly with Louis XIV. But they were greedy and selfish men, though one of them, Lord Ashley, afterwards Earl of *Shaftesbury*, was extremely able. Before long they began to disagree, and this made Charles more bold to follow his own fancy. In 1670 the king sold himself to Louis XIV., making with him the secret *Treaty of Dover*, in which Charles promised to turn Catholic, and Louis promised to send French troops to England to help him to put down any

rebellion of his subjects. The only members of the Cabal who knew anything about this were two Roman Catholics. The rest were only told that the king had agreed to join France in fighting the Dutch, and that he was going to be more tolerant in religion. However, the secret soon leaked out, and men became very suspicious of Charles, and very jealous of the Catholics.



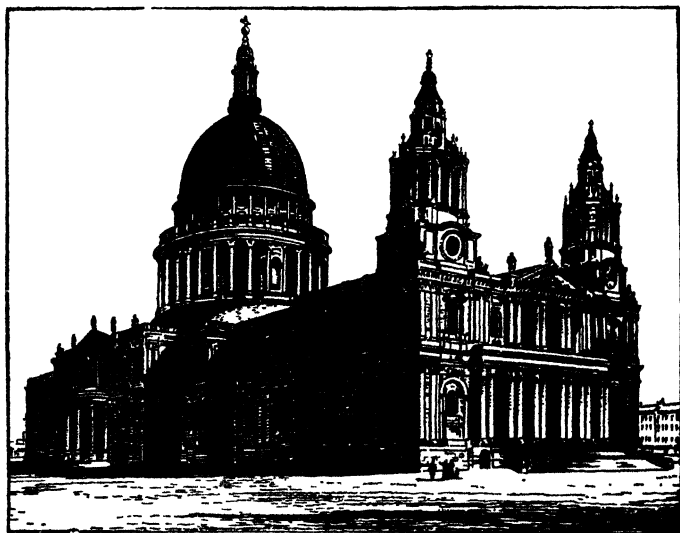
OLD ST. PAUL'S, LONDON

(Mainly built in the Thirteenth Century : destroyed by Fire, 1666)

8. In 1672 Charles again went to war against the Dutch. But this war was very unpopular. The English forgot that the Dutch were their rivals in trade, and honoured them for resisting the French king. The Cabal broke up in confusion, and Shaftesbury at once became the leader of the Opposition. In 1673 the king made the Earl of Danby, a Yorkshire nobleman, his chief minister. At home Danby followed in the lines of

**Danby :
The Test
Act**

Clarendon, strengthened the Church and opposed toleration. He passed a law called the Test Act, which said that no one should hold office under the king, unless he took the Holy Communion according to the rites of the English Church. This was meant to exclude the Roman Catholics, and was therefore popular with nearly all Protestants. Danby soon made peace with the Dutch, and arranged for the princess, *Mary elder*

*Walker & Cochrane*

ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL, LONDON

(Built by Sir C. Wren between 1675 and 1710)

daughter of the Duke of York, to marry William III. of Orange, the Stadholder, or chief ruler, of the Dutch. This was a very popular match. As Charles and Catharine of Braganza had no children, and the Duke of York no son, Mary was, after her father and uncle, the King, the next heir to the throne. Though her

father had turned Roman Catholic, Mary was a zealous Protestant. The young Prince of Orange, her cousin, was also a Protestant, and a bitter enemy of Louis XIV.

9. Danby was much hampered by Charles, who continued to intrigue with France, while his minister opposed that country. Louis grew so disgusted at this that he revealed the double dealing of king and minister to some of the English statesmen out of office. This increased the universal feeling of distrust. In 1678 Parliament threatened to impeach Danby, and soon drove him from power.

**Fall of
Danby**

10. It was easier to get rid of Danby, since general alarm had been inspired by a story, which arose, in 1678, of a Popish Plot. A needy and knavish clergyman called Titus Oates, who had been turned out of the English Church for gross offences, went abroad and turned Roman Catholic. But he was such a rogue that the Catholics soon expelled him from their Church also. Oates now came home and pretended that he had again become a good Protestant, being horrified at discovering that the Papists had formed a plot to slay Charles and make the Duke of York king. He was an unblushing liar, but nearly everybody believed his tale. He became a great man, lived sumptuously, and enjoyed a large pension. Other rogues saw that Oates had taken up a paying trade, and followed his example by telling fresh lies about the imagined conspiracy. Soon all England was in a state of frenzied excitement. Innocent Catholics were sent to the scaffold on the testimony of Oates and other informers. Panic-stricken Protestant juries found them guilty without troubling overmuch about the evidence.

**The Popish
Plot**

11. Shaftesbury cleverly used the panic for his own purposes. He boasted that he was the champion of

Protestantism, and brought forward the Exclusion Bill, which proposed to deprive the Duke of York of the

The Exclusion Bill and the Habeas Corpus Act throne because he was a Roman Catholic. Between 1679 and 1681 there were three short Parliaments held, in all of which

Shaftesbury could do what he pleased with the House of Commons. One Act, which he persuaded Parliament to pass, was a very wise measure. It was called the Habeas Corpus Act, and provided safeguards against people being imprisoned without lawful reason. But the thing that chiefly interested Shaftesbury at this time was the Exclusion Bill, which the Commons passed more than once with enthusiasm.

However, there was one man who kept his head, and that was Charles II. He was too wise to set himself against public opinion, as his father would have done. He did not wish, as he said, to go on his travels again. He dissolved Parliaments, so as to prevent the Exclusion Bill being brought up to the Lords. But by yielding for a time to Shaftesbury, he gave him, so to say, enough rope to hang himself with. Gradually, as the panic died away, Shaftesbury lost ground. At last the House of Lords plucked up courage to reject the Exclusion Bill.

12. As in 1642, the nation was now divided into two parties, the friends of Shaftesbury and the friends of the king. The former were now called

Whigs and Tories Whigs and the latter Tories. Both were to begin with contemptuous nicknames.

Whig is a Scottish word meaning sour milk, and was first given to the sour Presbyterians of Scotland, some of whom were then in revolt. Tory is an Irish word meaning robber. Whigs were therefore rebels, and Tories brigands and Papists. But few people knew what the names originally meant, and soon both parties were so proud of these meaningless titles that the names Whig and Tory have lasted ever since.

13. For a time civil war seemed likely between Whigs and Tories. But the violence and factiousness of the Whigs overshot the mark. Most Englishmen were determined there should be no more revolutions, and they thought the best way of preventing them was by backing up the natural heir to the throne. The selfish wisdom of the king helped on this state of feeling, and Charles deserves real credit for playing the part of a constitutional king in these trying years. Before long there was a strong Tory reaction. Shaftesbury fled to Holland, and died there. Unluckily, the Tories now behaved as badly as the Whigs had done.

The Tory reaction and the flight of Shaftesbury

14. In 1683 some of the Whigs, enraged at their defeat formed a conspiracy to murder the king. From the place where it was hatched, it was called the Rye House Plot. But it was detected, and its discovery completed the ruin of the Whigs. The law courts were again misused to satisfy the vengeance of the conquerors. Two of the best of the Whig leaders were accused of having had a share in the plot. These were Lord Russell, son of the Earl of Bedford, and Algernon Sidney, an old republican of the Commonwealth time. The evidence against them was legally insufficient. Nevertheless, they were condemned and executed. But fear of the Whig plotters kept the Tories popular for the rest of Charles's reign. The king himself seemed once more as well liked as in the days of the Restoration. But, in 1685, death suddenly cut him off. Just before the end he was received into the Roman Church.

The Rye House Plot, and the death of Charles II.

QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term 'The Restoration'? What causes brought it about? What changes were brought about with regard to the Church after the Restoration? Tell how the Puritans were treated now.

2. Mention the names of the colonies that were set up or acquired by the English from other nations. Write a line about each.

3. Tell what you know about the foreign policy of Charles II. Was it popular?

4. Write a few lines about Clarendon and Danby. What brought about the fall of the latter?

5. What was the object of the 'Exclusion Bill'? Who brought it before the Parliament? How do you account for the origin of the parties—Whigs and Tories?

6. How is the Habeas Corpus Act important?

CHAPTER XXX

James II., 1685-1688

[Married (1) Anne Hyde; (2) Mary of Modena]

Principal Dates :

1685. Succession of James, and Rebellion of Monmouth.

1688. James driven from the throne.

1. James of York now became James II. He was graver and more earnest than his brother, but not nearly so shrewd or so clear-sighted. Though he had many faults, he was honest in his love for the Roman Catholic Church, and had risked his throne rather than give up his faith. Despite his religion, he had been made king by the loyalty of the English Churchmen. Since the execution of Charles I., the Church had made a sort of religion of loyalty to the King. Her belief that it was God's will that the next heir must in all cases succeed, had defeated the Exclusion Bill, and now made James King. James had been very pleased with the Churchmen's trust in him. He told them that so long as they let him worship God after his own fashion, he would uphold all the rights of the English Church. Accordingly he kept on his brother's Tory ministers and ruled by their advice. A parliament which met was strongly Tory, and gave him a large revenue for life. For a few months everything went well.

**James II.'s
Character
and
accession**

2. Unable to influence Parliament, the Whigs fell back on war. With their help in 1685, James, Duke of Monmouth, an illegitimate son of Charles II., raised a revolt in the south-west of England. He soon gathered round him a large army of miners and

ploughmen. But the king's troops defeated him at Sedgemoor, in the last pitched battle fought on English soil. Monmouth was beheaded and his followers cruelly treated. Jeffreys, the harshest of the judges, condemned men to death with brutal jests and sneers and sent many hundreds to the scaffold. The assizes, which he held

**Monmouth's
Rebellion**



JAMES II

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery)

in the West, were long remembered as the Bloody Assizes. The king approved of Jeffrey's cruelties, and made him Lord Chancellor. His throne was now stronger than ever.

3. James now changed his policy. He was indignant that men of his own religion could hold no office in the state. He tried to get the Test Act repealed, hoping that it would be the first step towards winning for the

Catholics equal rights with the Protestants. But Parliament would not help him, believing that the Test Act was more than ever necessary with a Romanist on the throne. James angrily dismissed Parliament and his Tory Ministers. He claimed, that though as king he could not repeal a law, he had what he called a *Dispensing Power*, which enabled him to stop the operation of a law in any particular case, and a *Suspending Power* by which he could for a time suspend a law altogether. The judges decided that he had both these powers, and he at once began to use them very freely. He gave posts in the army, the law, and even in the Church to avowed Roman Catholics. He forced Oxford and Cambridge to admit Catholics to privileges that only lawfully belonged to Protestant clergymen. He bitterly persecuted the Presbyterians in Scotland, and appointed a Romanist as Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, where he strove to win to his side the oppressed Irish Catholics. By such acts he made Protestants very indignant. But James had been told by many English Churchmen that all good Churchmen were bound to obey the king, and could not raise their hands against the Lord's Anointed. He believed, therefore, that he was safe with the Church, but he was soon undeceived.

James attempts to restore Catholicism and arbitrary rule

4. There were not enough Roman Catholics to make a strong party, so James tried to unite the Protestant Dissenters with them on the ground that both had suffered from the rule of the Church. He issued in 1688 a Declaration of Indulgence, in which he suspended all the laws that prevented Catholics and Non-conformists from worshipping after their own fashion. He ordered the Church clergy to read his declaration in their churches, but seven bishops, headed by Archbishop Sancroft of Canterbury, protested against the

The Declaration of Indulgence the seven bishops

king's action. James sought to punish them, but the trial of the seven bishops ended in their acquittal. Every one rejoiced at their triumph. The Dissenters nearly all made common cause with the Church for they feared lest the king should by his Dispensing Power make himself all-powerful. James, like his father, had sought to evade the law which he dared not break, but he soon found it was now too late for kings to upset the law.

5. James was an old man, and men had endured his rule because they thought that he would soon die, and that his daughter, the Princess of Orange, would then become a Protestant queen. But now a son, christened James, was born to the king, and men foresaw a long line of Popish kings. This was more than the English could endure. A few Whig and Tory statesmen met together and asked Mary's husband, William, Prince of Orange, to come over and save the liberties of England and the Protestant religion. William accepted the invitation, and landed on 5th November in Torbay, with a Dutch army. But there was no need of soldiers. Every one deserted James. William marched straight to London and James fled to France. A Parliament met and declared the throne vacant; it drew up the Declaration of Rights, denouncing James's illegal ways. William and Mary accepted the declaration and were invited to occupy the empty throne. They were to be joint sovereigns, since Mary had a nearer title than her husband, and was more English in her ways. But all real power was to go to William. Early in 1689 William and Mary accepted the throne. They were not the heirs by blood, but king and queen by Act of Parliament. Their accession marks the end of the long struggle of king and Parliament. Parliament, already half victorious on several occasions, now made the crown dependent on itself, and became the

Revolution
and the
fall of
James II.

strongest thing in the state. Thus ended the glorious Revolution.

QUESTIONS

1. Who were the parties to the Battle of Sedgemoor? Under what circumstances was it fought?
2. What was the Test Act? When was it passed? Why did James II. attempt to get it repealed? What steps did James II. take to favour the Catholics?
3. Enumerate the causes that brought about the Revolution.

CHAPTER XXXI

William III. and Mary, 1689-1702

Principal Dates :

- 1689. Accession of William and Mary. Bill of Rights. Battle of Killiecrankie.
- 1690. Battle of the Boyne.
- 1692. Massacre of Glencoe. Battle of La Hougue.
- 1694. Death of Mary.
- 1697. Peace of Ryswick.
- 1701. Act of Settlement.
- 1702. Death of William III.

1. With the accession of William and Mary we reach the beginning of what may fairly be called the modern history of England. Ever since that date Parliament had been supreme. Having made William and Mary king and queen, it passed several new laws to make it impossible for any future king to behave as James had done. The chief of these was the *Bill of Rights* (1689), based on the Declaration of Rights. It declared the Suspending Power illegal, and enacted that Roman Catholics should no longer be allowed to reign over England. The king was not allowed to levy taxes or keep a strong army without the sanction of Parliament.

Results of the Revolution

Bill of Rights

2. The Revolution also put an end to the absolute ascendancy of the Church. In 1689 Parliament passed a *Toleration Act*, giving the Protestant Dissenters liberty to worship in their own chapels. This measure put an end to the long-continued efforts, which nearly every party had

The Tolera- tion Act

made since the Reformation, to insist upon all Englishmen worshipping God after the same fashion. After this the spirit of toleration spread steadily, and many of those, who were excluded from the benefits of the Toleration Act, won virtual liberty of worship. But it took much more than another century before complete liberty of thought and worship were secured for all.



WILLIAM III.

(From the Painting of Volterrens at Welbeck Abbey)

3. Parliament also took care to vote money to the king for one year only, so that from that day to this Parliament has had to meet every year to grant supplies. They also passed the *Mutiny Act* which gave the king power to govern the army for one year only; and this Act has still to be re-passed each year. A few years later, in 1701, Parliament passed the *Act of Settlement*, which

**The Act of
Settlement**

arranged that if William and his sister-in-law Anne died without children, the throne should pass to the Protestant descendants of *Sophia, Electress of Hanover*, the only Protestant child of Elizabeth, Electress Palatine, the daughter of James I. It is through this law that the present king holds his throne.



MARY II.

(From the Picture by Netscher in the National Portrait Gallery)

4. William was a hard-working and able man, who was glad to wield all the power left to the king by law. He still chose his ministers freely, and as he

hated the notion of being king of a party, he tried to divide office between the chief Whigs and Tories. But he gradually found that this system would not work. The Whig and Tory ministers quarrelled fiercely with each other. Besides this, the majority of the House of Commons was sometimes Whig and sometimes Tory, and always grumbled if the ministers were not of the same way of thinking as itself. As it had the power of the purse, it could make the king do what it liked by threatening to stop supplies. Very unwillingly, William was forced to choose as his ministers not the men he liked best, but the leaders of the party which the House of Commons preferred. His successors were not so clever as he, and therefore found it difficult to carry on the administration smoothly. Bit by bit the system grew up which still exists. The king's ministers became his ministers in little more than name. The king still appoints the ministers, but he always has to choose such men as please the House of Commons. All the ministers are, therefore, more or less of the same way of thinking. The chief of them form what is called the *Cabinet*, that is, a small Council which settles all questions too secret or difficult for Parliament to deal with properly. This is called *Cabinet Government* and *Party Government*.

**The Cabinet
system and
Party
government**

5. In the long run the result of the Cabinet system was to take the control of government of the country from the king and give it to the House of Commons. Even under it, however, the king had plenty of influence, and so had the House of Lords. But on all really vital matters the Commons, through their power of the purse, could make their will prevail over king and lords alike. We must remember, however, that two hundred years ago the House of Commons was a very different body from what it is now.

**How our
Modern
Constitution
has grown
up**

Nowadays nearly every grown man and woman have votes, so that the House of Commons really represents the people. We therefore call the modern Constitution a *democracy*, or a government by the people. But almost up to Queen Victoria's time the House of Commons was chosen by so few voters, that a few great landlords, many of them noblemen, largely decided who should be elected to it. The result was that for the one hundred and fifty years after 1689 the government was more of an *aristocracy*, or government by the nobles, than a democracy or monarchy. But the nobles ruled by controlling the House of Commons, and not by having seats in the House of Lords.

6. The Revolution had important results in Ireland. The Roman Catholics there supported James, long after he had been driven from England.

The Revolution in Ireland

At last James himself went to Ireland with a French army. The Irish Catholics had been very badly treated in previous years, but they now revenged themselves by behaving equally cruelly to the Irish Protestants. However, the Protestants made a noble stand against them. At last in 1690 William crossed to Ireland and he defeated James at the *Battle of the Boyne*, and soon drove him from the country. The Catholics now showed the same heroism in resisting the enemy as their Protestant rivals had done before, and by the Treaty of Limerick they were promised generous terms. But this promise was broken; the Catholics were treated worse than by Cromwell and Strafford. All power was taken from them, and the majority were reduced to abject poverty. Only Protestants could hold office or sit in the Irish Parliament, and even this was controlled by the English Cabinet. This state of things continued for nearly a hundred years.

7. In Scotland the course of events was like that in England. The Scots had been much disgusted with

the rule of Charles II. and James II. The extreme Presbyterians rose several times in revolt. These were the men who were first called Whigs. But they were put down by force, and *John Graham* of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, was set over a force of horse to keep them in order. In 1689 the Scots gladly deposed James and chose William and Mary as their rulers. They now at last got rid of Episcopacy and made the Scotch Church presbyterian, as it has been ever since. Scotland was now ruled much more in agreement with Scottish ideas than it had been in Stewart times.

The Revolution in Scotland

8. Scotland had still many troubles to face. Dundee after the fall of James II., had gone to the Highlands, where the Celtic tribes still lived a very free, picturesque, and disorderly life. Like Montrose forty-five years earlier, Dundee won over the clans to his side, and marching on the Lowlands, won a battle for King James at the pass of *Killiecrankie*. But Dundee was slain and the clansmen went home. Great efforts were now made to pacify the Highlands. The chiefs were called upon to take oaths to William, but one of them, *Macdonald of Glencoe*, neglected to do this. In 1692 a regiment of rival clansmen was taken to Glencoe, where the Macdonalds entertained them with Highland hospitality. Suddenly the soldiers fell upon the Macdonalds, and treacherously slew as many as they could lay hands on. This was the *Massacre of Glencoe*. William has been rightly blamed for it; but the worst guilt falls rather on his Scottish ministers.

Killiecrankie and Glencoe

9. Foreign policy was greatly altered by the Revolution. As long as the Stewarts were on the throne, England was too much divided at home to care much, and too weak to do much, in foreign politics. But William was, above all things, a European statesman. For nearly twenty years he had been doing his best to

break down the power of Louis XIV. of France. His chief object in accepting the throne of England was to use her strength against the French.

**War with
France**

He was not disappointed. Louis gave so much help to James that Englishmen cheerfully joined the war that now broke out against him. For nine years William was constantly fighting the French. He himself commanded the armies of English, Dutch, Spaniards, and Austrians that combined against the French in the Netherlands. He was not at all successful in winning battles, but he had a wonderful power of keeping his army together after it had been beaten. His stubbornness made French progress very slow. At sea England did much better, winning in 1692 a very complete victory over the French at the battle of *La Hougue*. At last peace was made in 1697 at *Ryswick*.

10. This was the first costly modern war fought by England, and William was not able to settle its expenses year by year. He was obliged to borrow money, and content himself with paying interest upon it. This was the origin of the *National Debt*, which soon swelled up to an enormous amount. For William's war with France was but the first of a series of struggles that lasted nearly one hundred and thirty years. As in the days of the Hundred Years' War, it again seemed natural for English and French to be quarrelling.

11. Queen Mary died in 1694, after which William reigned alone. As they had no children, the next heir was Mary's younger sister, *Anne*. Mary

**William III.
and the
Jacobites**

was a very bright, gracious, and popular lady. William, though very able, was selfish, irritable, and ignorant of English ways, so that, though he did so much for England, few Englishmen cared for him. His unpopularity gave the followers of his father-in-law a chance of reviving

his claims. They were called *Jacobites* from *Jacobus*, the Latin for James. They were favoured by many of the Tories and High Churchmen who still believed in monarchy by divine right, and disliked William because he favoured the Whigs and the Low Church. Plots and conspiracies were formed to bring back James and to depose or murder William, but none of them were successful.

12. Before long William was again anxious to fight the French, for in 1700 Louis had won the throne of Spain for his grandson Philip, and William thought that the union of France and Spain would make Louis more powerful than ever. But he could not persuade the English to go to war. However, when in 1701 James II. died, Louis XIV. broke his promise to acknowledge the Protestant succession, by recognising his son as James III. This made Englishmen so angry that they allowed William to declare war. But a mishap to the king now suddenly changed the situation. When out riding, William's horse stumbled against a mole-hill and threw him, and William, who was in wretched health, died soon after. The Jacobites hated him so bitterly that they used to drink the health of the 'little gentleman in velvet,' meaning the mole that had caused his death.

**Death of
James II.
and William
III.**

QUESTIONS

1. What were the results of the Revolution? What measures were passed to prevent tyrannical rule in England? Write a sentence about each.
2. Tell what you know of the Toleration Act and of the Act of Settlement.
3. What do you understand by the 'Cabinet Government'? Tell how this system of Government began. How was the House of Commons different in those days from what it is now?

4. What attempts were made to upset the Revolution settlement in Ireland and Scotland? Write a few lines about the 'Massacre of Glencoe'.

5. Why did William III. wage a war against France? What other steps did he take to prevent the growth of the power of France?

CHAPTER XXXII

Anne, 1702-1714

(Married George of Denmark)

Principal Dates :

- 1702. Accession of Anne.
- 1704. Battle of Blenheim and Capture of Gibraltar.
- 1706. Battle of Ramillies.
- 1707. Union with Scotland.
- 1708. Battle of Oudenarde.
- 1709. Battle of Malplaquet.
- 1710. Harley and Saint John form Tory ministry.
- 1713. Peace of Utrecht.
- 1714. Death of Queen Anne.

1. Queen Anne was a kind and good-natured lady, but narrow, obstinate and dull. She was ruled by her friend the *Duchess of Marlborough*, a cleverer woman than herself. The queen and duchess called each other 'Mrs. Morley' and 'Mrs. Freeman,' so that there might seem no difference of rank between them. Now the *Duke of Marlborough* was a great general and a shrewd statesman, and the one man in England who was clever enough to carry on the work of William III. He was cold-hearted, selfish and greedy, but his private defects did not prevent him doing a great work for his country. Through his wife Marlborough ruled the queen. He persuaded her to carry on William's war against the French. As powerful with Parliament as with the court, he became both the chief minister and the chief general.

**Queen Anne
and Marl-
borough**

2. The war, called the *War of the Spanish Succession*, lasted from 1702 to 1713. Its cause was the

establishment of Louis XIV.'s grandson, Philip V., as King of Spain, when in 1700 the old line of kings descended from Philip II. had died out.

**The War of
the Spanish
Succession**

All Europe had long been afraid of the power of France, and felt that if Spain and France, the old enemies, were joined, Louis XIV. would endanger the liberties of Europe.



QUEEN ANNE

(After a Portrait by John Closterman in the National Portrait Gallery)

Most powers, therefore, upheld against the French candidate the claims of the *Archduke Charles* of

Austria a son of the Emperor. England, Austria, Holland, and many smaller states joined in what was called the *Grand Alliance* against France and Spain.

3. Nothing great happened at first for the allies were jealous of each other, and very slow. Marlborough often found it more difficult to coax and persuade his friends to beat the enemy.

**Marlborough's
victories**

However, in 1704 the French marched through Bavaria, and threatened to invade Austria. Marlborough was in the Netherlands, but he boldly marched his armies many hundreds of miles from Holland to Bavaria, where he suddenly appeared in time to save Austria. A great battle was now fought at *Blenheim*, where Marlborough won a complete victory. It was the first time that the French had been badly beaten since Louis XIV. had become king. Parliament gave Marlborough a large estate, where was built a magnificent palace, still called *Blenheim House*, in which his descendants still live. Marlborough gained other victories in the southern Netherlands, the country now called Belgium. The first of these was *Ramillies*, in 1706, which resulted in the French and Spaniards being driven out of the Netherlands. But they came back again, and Marlborough had to win two more battles before he had thoroughly conquered that country. These were fought at *Oudenarde* in 1708, and at *Malplaquet* in 1709.

4. In Spain the English and their allies were not so successful. But one victory gained by the fleet in the same year as the Battle of *Blenheim* proved important. This was the capture of the rock of *Gibraltar*, in the south of Spain.

**Capture of
Gibraltar**

It has been English ever since, and is very useful since it commands the narrow Straits of Gibraltar and thus controls the sea route to India through the Suez Canal.

5. The war was long, bloody and costly. As years went on, people in England began to wonder why

EUROPE in 1713

Austrian dominions in 1720.....
Prussian " " "
Sardinian " " "
British Possessions underlined.. Gibraltar
Morborough's map in 1704....

Tangier
(time of Charles II)
Gibraltar
(1704)
Seville
Almanza
Madrid
Bathona
Barcelona
Cordoba
(1769 French)
Corsica
Minerva
(1708-1766)
(1762-1782)
Sardinia
(Austrian 1713
exchanged for Sicily 1768)
Naples
Rome
Venice
Vienna
Stuttgart
Schellenberg
Dresden
Potsdam
Berlin
Minden
Kassel
Frankfurt
Hannover
Hanover
Dunkirk
Paris
Versailles
Quiberon
Ushant
Brest
la Hougue
Orléans
Beauchamp
Blenheim
Palmyra
Dublin
Limerick
Cork

Sicily
(1713 Savoy 1713
exchanged for Sardinia 1768)
C. Passaro

URKEY
London
(to Venice)

[illegible][illegible]

peace was not made and said it did not much matter to England whether a Frenchman or an Austrian was king of Spain. The Tories gradually got quite tired of the war. They disliked England having much to do with European affairs, and hated successful soldiers and standing armies, fearing lest a victorious general might become another Cromwell. The Whigs, on the other hand, believed that England ought to take a leading part in the politics of Europe. Marlborough had always been a Tory, but he now found his old friends would not support him heartily, and gradually went over to the Whigs. At last the ministry was entirely Whig. But the Whigs foolishly refused to make peace because they thought it was the interest of their party to go on fighting. This made many plain Englishmen oppose them.

**The Tories
oppose the
war**

6. For some time the Whigs held power because of the queen's fondness for Marlborough and his wife. But now Anne quarrelled with the duchess, whose violent ways had long been hard to bear. The queen found a new Tory favourite named *Mrs. Masham*, who was much more amiable and discreet than the once beloved *Mrs. Freeman*. In 1710 an election returned a Tory majority to Parliament, and the queen gladly dismissed Marlborough and the Whigs. A Tory Government was formed whose chiefs were *Harley*, a hard-working man, and *Saint John*, afterwards Lord Bolingbroke, a very clever, amusing, and brilliant man, who wrote and spoke beautifully, but who looked upon politics as an exciting game, and had few serious convictions. This ministry remained in power for the rest of Anne's life.

**The Tory
ministry**

7. The chief work of the Tory ministry was to make peace with France. This was quite right in itself, for France had been sufficiently beaten, though the allies had failed to drive Louis XIV.'s grandson out of Spain.

But the Tories were to blame for carrying on the war slackly and putting a dull Tory duke in command of the army instead of Marlborough. And

**The Peace
of Utrecht**

it is possible that they might, if they had not been in such a hurry, have made much better terms with the French. However, in 1713 the *Treaty of Utrecht* was signed which ended the war. By it Philip was recognised as King of Spain. But the Spanish possessions in Italy and the Netherlands were handed over to the Archduke Charles, who had already become the Emperor Charles VI. The treaty proved of great advantage to English colonists and merchants. Besides Gibraltar, England obtained the French portion of the island of St. Kitts in the West Indies; and Acadie (Nova Scotia) in America as well as certain fishing rights off Newfoundland which later on led to many quarrels with the French. But most important at the time was the right England gained to send one shipload of goods each year to Spanish America, while the *Asiento* permitted her to supply the Spaniards with slaves; but this successful breach in the ring of Spanish trade monopoly was quickly widened by smugglers and soon led to another war. In 1715 Louis XIV. died, having outlived his greatness.

8. In Queen Anne's days the Union between England and Scotland was completed. Since 1603 there had

**The Union
with Scot-
land**

been a single ruler of the two kingdoms, but James I.'s wish to unite the two countries thoroughly had only been carried out by Cromwell, whose work, based on force and not on consent, lasted only a few years. But since the Revolution things had not gone well. The Scots remained very jealous of England, and were particularly angry that they were not allowed to take part in English trade. They therefore resolved to break the connection with England, and passed an *Act of Secu-*

rily which said that the person, who after Anne's death succeeded to the English throne, was not to be allowed to be King of Scots. This meant complete separation and the danger of war between the English and the Scots. This was a sad prospect, but the only other settlement of the question was a closer union. Anne's ministers now brought forward a scheme for union, and, though there was much prejudice on both sides, the *Act of Union* was passed in 1707. The two Parliaments were joined into one, and henceforth Scotch peers and commoners sat with their English brethren at Westminster. Free trade between the two countries was secured, and the Scots henceforth had all the rights of Englishmen in trading with the colonies. But Scotland kept her own system of laws and her own Presbyterian Church. So even in union the smaller country retained those things in which she most differed from England. Though unpopular at first, this union on equal terms finally became a magnificent success.

9. Anne's health was fast breaking up, and it was known that the Electress of Hanover and her son were no friends of the Tories. Bolingbroke was willing to do anything to keep his friends in power, and planned to upset the Act of Settlement and bring back the son of James II. to reign after Anne's death. Anne hated Sophia of Hanover, and would gladly have seen her half-brother succeed her. The real difficulty was that James—*The Old Pretender* as he was called—was a Catholic, and few wished to have a Catholic king. Harley became alarmed, quarrelled with Bolingbroke, and was turned out of office. Bolingbroke then hurried on his preparations, but before he was ready, Anne died. The old Electress Sophia had died a few months earlier, but her son George, Elector of Hanover, was quickly proclaimed George I.

**The last
years of
Queen Anne**

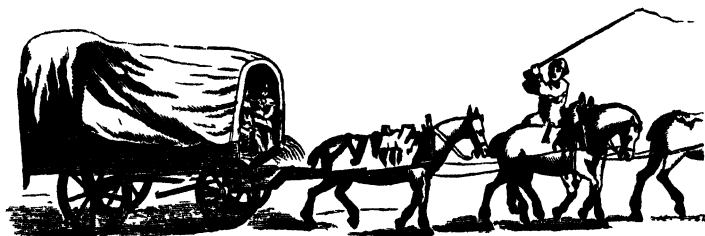
ENGLAND IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

10. During the Stewart period the progress that had begun with the great Elizabethan revival steadily continued. Even the fierce fighting of the great Civil War did very little to stop the growth of the country. Population increased slowly but steadily, especially in the towns. Yet the only really large town in those days was London, which had perhaps nearly half-a-million inhabitants. The next were *Bristol*, the chief port, and *Norwich*, the chief manufacturing town; but neither of these had more than 30,000 people. The trading classes increased in numbers, wealth, and importance. Up to the end of the Tudor period, England had been almost entirely a country of farmers and graziers. It now became a commercial country as well. English merchant-ships became more numerous, and English merchants more enterprising than those of any other land, and by the end of the seventeenth century the Dutch had lost their position of the greatest trading nation in Europe, and the English had taken their place. The Act of Union of 1707 enabled Scotland to enjoy the same commercial privileges as England, and at once the Scots fully shared with the English the work of increasing the wealth and resources of Great Britain.

11. The results of this progress were seen in the increase of comforts and conveniences of everyday life.

Food became more varied and attractive. About the time of Charles II. the use of *tea*, *coffee*, and *chocolate* began, and did something to reduce the amount of strong drink consumed by the English. In London and the chief towns *coffee-houses* grew up, where gentlemen met to gossip, talk politics, and hear the news of the day. There were plenty of amusements, chief among

them being the Theatre. The Puritans disliked the stage, and under the Commonwealth the theatres were shut up by order of the Government. They were reopened at the Restoration, though the plays then written for them were much less stirring and noble than were those written in the days of Elizabeth and



WAGON OF THE SECOND HALF OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

James. Dress, which was simple enough for the poor, remained very rich for the upper classes, and indeed became so fantastic and strange that the graver Puritans were hardly to be blamed for trying to bring in a simpler style of garments. After the Restoration,



COACH OF THE LATTER HALF OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

the curious fashion arose of men shaving the hair off their head and wearing in its place hot, expensive and uncomfortable wigs. Even ladies wore 'puffs' of false hair, and set off their beauty by sticking little black

patches on to their faces. Travel became more common, and besides private carriages, stage-coaches, which conveyed all comers from place to place, were now for the first time used. But the coaches of the Restoration seldom travelled more than fifty miles a day. The roads were very bad, and highwaymen constantly stopped the coach and robbed the passengers. But the stage-coaches were expensive, and poor people had either to walk or to travel in slow and jolting wagons.

12. The French now had very great influence on English manners, tastes, and fashions, and every fine gentleman thought that he ought to copy as much as he could the example set by Louis XIV. As the spirit of the writers of the age of Elizabeth died away, the English writers began to look to France for models and examples. This was particularly the case after the Restoration. After Milton's death poetry became less important than prose, and lost much of its spiritual force and beauty. Such poets as *John Dryden* wrote with a complete mastery of form, but the spirit was lacking, and many of Dryden's most successful poems were political satires. Prose-writing developed greatly, and was used by the political leaders for party purposes. By the days of Queen Anne a new and more familiar style of prose-writing grew up, which was easier to understand and more like ordinary conversation. This style was known as the Essay, and the most famous masters of Essay-writing during Anne's reign were *Joseph Addison*, and *Richard Steele*. Regular newspapers were beginning to be published, and weeklies such as the *Tatler* and the *Spectator* had great influence in polite society. One very famous series of Essays were the *Roger de Coverley Essays*, written from week to week by the friends of Addison and Steele, which pictured the social life of the country gentleman of the day by telling of the doings of an imaginary

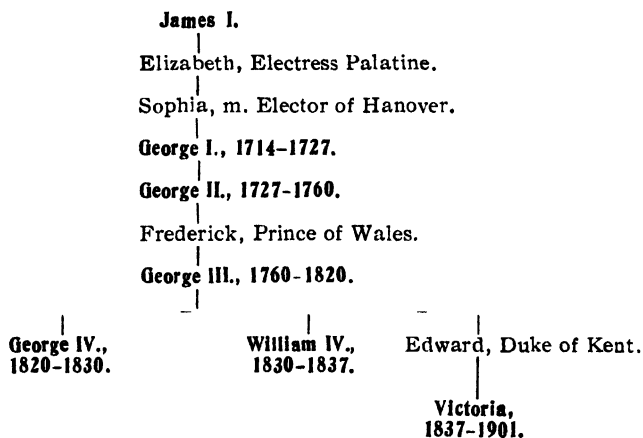
**The manners
and litera-
ture of the
Restoration**

Justice of the Peace, Sir Roger. Another famous prose-writer of the time was *Daniel Defoe*, who published many political tracts and pamphlets in the Whig interest, and also amused himself by exercising his imagination by writing fictitious memoirs. The most famous is *Robinson Crusoe*, which is a forerunner of the English novel which was to develop in the next century. The greatest pamphleteer on the Tory side was an Irish churchman, *Dean Swift*, who wrote with a vigour which was only equalled by his bitterness. His most famous pamphlet was 'The Conduct of the Allies' which he wrote to persuade the English people that the War of the Spanish Succession had gone on long enough. The postal system was springing up, more people read, and more people wrote than before, but they did not think so closely, nor read so deeply as the scholars of an earlier age had done. Yet their interests were wider, and much attention was paid to the study of natural science; the Royal Society was founded during Charles II.'s reign, and the king was a keen member of the society. The most famous English scientist of the time was the Cambridge professor, *Sir Isaac Newton*.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did England join the Grand alliance? Which English general led the allied forces in the war that followed? Mention the names of the chief battles fought. How did England benefit by the Treaty of Utrecht?
2. What led to the Act of Union of 1707? What were the provisions of the Act?
3. Tell what you know of Marlborough and Bolingbroke.
4. Write a few lines about each of the following:—
Dryden, Addison, Steele and Swift.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER



BOOK VII

THE HOUSE OF HANOVER, 1714-1901

CHAPTER XXXIII

George I., 1714-1727

(Married Sophia Dorothea of Celle)

Principal Dates :

- 1714. Accession of George I.
- 1715. The Jacobite Revolt.
- 1716. Septennial Act.
- 1720. South Sea Bubble.
- 1721. Walpole Prime Minister.
- 1727. Death of George I.

1. George I. was an elderly German who never even learned the English language. He had been a good despotic ruler in Hanover, and he understood foreign politics. But he was heavy and slow, and eager to get places and pensions for his German friends. He was made king because he was a Protestant, and to keep out the Pretender. Knowing that the Tories had done their best to deprive him of the throne, he drove them from power, and trusted only to the Whigs. Bolingbroke, whose greediness had ruined his cause, ran away to France, and it was more than fifty years before the Tories came back to office. They were now as unpopular with the country as they were with the kings. But foreign rulers could not exercise much power, as they knew so little what was going on. So under the new House the full effects of the

**The House
of Hanover
and the
long Whig
rule**

Revolution of 1688 were worked out. Under the long Whig rule *Cabinet* and *Party Government* were firmly established.

2. In 1715 the Jacobites stirred up a rebellion. In England it was a failure. A few fox-hunting squires



GEORGE I.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery;
Painted after Sir G. Kneller)

rose in Northumberland, and joining some rebels from the Scottish Lowlands, marched southwards as far as *Preston* in Lancashire, where they surrendered after a poor attempt at fighting. A much more formidable insurrection broke out in the Highlands. There the

chiefs of the clans were the only rulers of the remote mountain glens. The people there spoke only Gaelic, and cared nothing for what was said or done in London or Edinburgh. The Celts of the Highlands were splendid swordsmen, and the fierce rush of a Highland charge generally put to flight the slow-moving, pig-tailed, and pipe-clayed soldiers of the time. While the Lowland Scots and the English had no love for their Hanoverian king, many of the Highland chiefs were passionately devoted to the exiled Stewarts. Accordingly when, in 1715, the *Earl of Mar* raised the standard of James III., the clansmen flocked to his camp. Had Mar been a clever man he might have done great things. But he wasted his time at Perth while regular soldiers were hurried up from the south. When it was too late he advanced, and won a doubtful victory at *Sheriffmuir*. But no Highland army could keep long together, and many of the clansmen went home. At last the Pretender himself came to Scotland, but he was dull, shy, and melancholy, and had neither courage to lead nor enthusiasm to stir men's hearts. The disgusted army slowly melted away, and the Pretender quickly went back to France. The chief result of *the '15*, as it was called, was to show the strength of the House of Hanover.

**The Jacobite
revolt of
1715**

3. A further small consequence of the Jacobite rising was the passing in 1716, of the *Septennial Act*, which permitted Parliaments to last for seven years. Since William III.'s time Parliaments could only sit for three years, but it was felt unwise to have an election during the rebellion, and so the life of Parliament was extended. This Act is worth remembering since it remained the law till 1911, when the life of Parliament was fixed at five years, which it remains today.

**The
Septennial
Act**

4. Since the Revolution British trade had increased wonderfully. The years after the Peace of Utrecht were a time of great prosperity, and many people made so much money that they did not know what to do with it. They were therefore anxious to find safe investments for their savings from which they could draw large interest. Now a new company was started called the *South Sea Company*, to which were handed over those rights of trading with the Spanish colonies in South America which had been given to England in the Treaty of Utrecht. It was a sound company, but people imagined that it would make fabulous profits. They therefore offered enormous prices for a share in it, sometimes giving £1,000 for a share that at first had only been worth £100. Finding how foolish many people were, rogues started companies with a view to deceive innocent people. For a time investors were found ready to put their money into anything. But this could not go on for ever. Some of the worst companies failed, and their collapse caused general alarm. Every one was now as eager to sell as he had been to buy. But the value of shares, even in sound companies, came down with a run when there were plenty of sellers but no buyers. The result was a general panic. Many people lost all their money, and the country was plunged into deep distress. The *South Sea Bubble*, as it was called, had been blown out so big that it had burst. This happened in 1720.

5. The losers now found that some of the ministers had been bribed by the South Sea Company, and raised an outcry against them. Luckily there was a wise Whig statesman named *Sir Robert Walpole*, who, a few years before had quarrelled with the other ministers and gone out of office. Walpole was known to have the best head for figures of any in the country, and it

**The South
Sea Bubble**

**Walpole's
ministry**

was felt that if anybody could restore credit it was he. Accordingly, in 1721, the Government was changed, and Walpole was made the head of a new ministry. So well did he do his work, that he remained in office for more than twenty years. However, in 1727, George I. died when on a visit to Hanover. He was succeeded by his eldest son, George II. with whom he had long quarrelled fiercely.

QUESTIONS

1. By what right did George I. come to the throne of England? Tell what you know about his character. How did his accession affect the constitution?
2. Who were the Jacobites? Why did they rebel? What do you know of *the Fifteen*? Point out its chief results.
3. Tell what you know of the South Sea Bubble. What was Walpole's connection with it?

CHAPTER XXXIV

George II., 1727-1760

(Married Caroline of Anspach)

Principal Dates :

- 1727. Accession of George II.
- 1738. Beginning of the Methodist Movement.
- 1739. War with Spain.
- 1742. Fall of Walpole.
- 1740-1748. War of the Austrian Succession.
- 1743. Battle of Dettingen.
- 1745. Battle of Fontenoy.
- 1745-1746. The last Jacobite Revolt.
- 1754. Death of Henry Pelham.
- 1756-1763. The Seven Years' War.
- 1757. Battle of Plassey.
- 1759. Capture of Quebec.
- 1760. Death of George II.

1. George II. was a fussy, hot-tempered man, a shrewd judge of character, and a brave soldier. He was small-minded and mean, but true to his friends, and devoted to his clever wife, *Caroline of Anspach*. He had long disliked Walpole, but by her advice he kept him in office. Though a thorough German, George talked English fairly, and took more interest in his kingdom than his father. After the fashion of his house he was on bad terms with his son *Frederick, Prince of Wales*.

2. Walpole was still the leading statesman. He was very prudent and careful. He managed business

very well, and was particularly successful in finance. He was anxious that the ministers should all be of the same way of thinking, and naturally thought that his own way was the best. He kept severe discipline among those who held places under him, and drove out of office all who would not agree with him. He was the

**Walpole,
Prime
Minister**



GEORGE II.

(After a Portrait by T. Hudson in the National Portrait Gallery)

first English minister who was called *Prime Minister*, though he denied the title. Before his days the king had taken the chair at cabinets, but it was no use George I. doing so, since he could not understand

English. No later king ever attended ministers' meetings, so somebody was wanted to take the chief place. Walpole was only too glad to have as much power as he could, and it was found so convenient to have one minister superior to the rest that ever since there has always been a Prime Minister.

3. Walpole knew that many members of Parliament would not support him unless they were bribed, and took good care that they should get the money or the places that they wanted. He also understood how to manage elections, and was not scrupulous as to how he conducted them so long as he could get his man in. By such devices he kept the House of Commons under control. But he used power as he thought would be best for the country. Above all, he loved peace. He kept peace between parties at home, and made the people so prosperous that they grew quite contented with the Hanoverian kings. Walpole disliked grand plans and new laws. His motto was, 'Let sleeping dogs lie.'

Walpole thought that the interests of the country required improvement in trade. During his days duties were levied on a number of articles imported into the country. This hindered trade with other countries. Smuggling on a large scale was resorted to in order to evade taxes. Walpole who was already known to be a good financier put forward a plan to prevent smuggling and to improve trade. He proposed to take away the customs duties on tobacco and wine, allow them to be brought into the country and levy instead an excise duty upon these two commodities. His plan was called the Excise Scheme, and if it had become law, it would have prevented smuggling and fostered trade. But his opponents in the country, as well as in Parliament opposed the measure and it was withdrawn.

**Walpole's
Home
policy**

He also made attempts to reduce the National Debt and to encourage industries by giving grants from the state to some of them.

4. There were several wars in Europe while Walpole was minister, but he managed to keep England out of them. In one year of war he boasted that though ten thousand men had been slain in battle, there was not one Englishman among them. He was the only statesman in those days who kept friendly with France. But in 1739 he was forced into declaring war with Spain by the clamour of the merchants who wished to force the Spaniards to give them more chances to trade with Spanish America. But he took little pains to carry it out actively, and was denounced for his slackness, and was driven from office in 1742.

**Walpole's
foreign
policy**

5. Before the fall of Walpole a war had broken out called the *War of the Austrian Succession*. It began in 1740, when the Emperor Charles VI. died, leaving no son. The old emperor had wanted his daughter *Maria Theresa* to succeed him in all his dominions. But several countries thought that the accession of a helpless girl gave them a good chance of adding some of the Austrian territories to their own. France and Spain were among these, and so was a rising new state in North Germany named *Prussia*, then ruled by its famous king, *Frederick the Great*. England sympathised with *Maria Theresa*, and after Walpole's fall did a good deal to help her. The result was that the war with Spain became mixed up with this war about her inheritance. In 1743 George himself led the British army to victory at *Dettingen* in Germany. It was the last battle in which an English king himself took the field. But in 1745 the French won a hard-fought battle at *Fontenoy* in the Netherlands over George's second son, the *Duke of Cumberland*. The

**The War of
the Austrian
Succession**

battle was decided by the fierce charge of a brigade of exiled Irish Catholics, forced by the cruel policy of England to take the pay of France. Peace was made in 1748.

6. This war revived the hopes of the Jacobites. France once more favoured their cause, and James, the Old Pretender, though still alive, was now thrown into the shade by his son *Charles Edward*, called by his friends the Prince of Wales, and by most Englishmen the Young Pretender. Charles Edward was much better able to arouse enthusiasm than his father. He was handsome, gracious, and enterprising, though he lacked more solid qualities. He was too eager to wait until the French gave him help, and in 1745 landed with a few companions in the Western Highlands, and called upon the clans to follow him. The Highlanders loyally responded to his appeal. He marched straight to the Lowlands and took up his quarters in Edinburgh. Few Scots raised a hand against him, since, though they cared little for a Popish prince, they still hated the Union, and were indifferent to the House of Hanover. Moreover, most of the regular British army was fighting the French in the Netherlands. However, a force was hastily collected and sent against the bold Pretender. Charles marched with his Highlanders to *Prestonpans*, not far from where Somerset had won the Battle of Pinkie. The clansmen drew their broadswords, and rushed amidst the droning of bagpipes and fierce Gaelic battle-cries upon George's soldiers, who fled in a disgraceful panic.

7. Charles now invaded England, hoping that the Jacobites would rally to him. He marched through Cumberland, Lancashire, and Derbyshire. As he passed along, the people stared at him and his barefooted, kilted Highlanders, but did nothing either for or against him. At

**The Jacobite
revolt of
1745**

**The march
to Derby**



Derby Charles lost heart, and turning back, retreated safely to Scotland. Then the British troops fell upon the footsore and weary Highlanders at *Falkirk*, but got beaten for their pains.

8. The Duke of Cumberland now took up the command, and Charles fled northwards before him. In 1746 was fought at *Culloden Moor*, the last real battle on British soil. Experience had taught the regulars how to withstand the Highland charge. The infantry fixed their bayonets and reserved their fire until the Highlanders were close up to them. Then they poured in deadly volleys. The clansmen still fought desperately, but were utterly beaten. This was the end of the last Jacobite revolt—the *revolt of the '45*. Cumberland behaved so brutally that he won the name of 'Butcher'. Charles Edward escaped to the Continent after strange adventures, where he became a drunkard and lost all influence. With him ended the unfortunate House of Stewart. The Government broke up the clan system in the Highlands. Great roads were driven through the glens and some of the fiercer spirits were enlisted in new Highland regiments which have done such magnificent service ever since to the British Empire. One cannot help feeling sorry for the fate of the Highlanders, and Britain lost much that was poetical and picturesque when their disorderly freedom was abolished. But it had to go.

9. During this period the cabinet had been growing steadily in importance. The word 'cabinet council' means secret council, and such a secret council had been growing up during the seventeenth century. Then it was found, that the old Privy Council, which was the king's usual body of advisers, was becoming too large to deal with important and confidential business. It became customary to appoint committees for special

**The Battle
of Culloden**

**Develop-
ment
of Cabinet
Government**

purposes; the most important committee, often called 'the committee' or the cabinet, dealt chiefly with foreign affairs, but also with all confidential business. It met regularly under the king's personal chairmanship, and consisted of the most important ministers as well as the king's special friends. It was not, during the seventeenth century, party ministry in the modern sense, but merely a meeting of the king's chief advisers. It was often unpopular and attempts were made to get back to the Privy Council, but in vain. By Anne's reign the custom was for the select committee of chief ministers to meet regularly in the Secretary's office, and then to go weekly to the palace, to meet under the Queen's presidency, when all important matters were decided 'in the Cabinet'. Thus the Privy Council became merely a formal body. George I. did not understand English, and the meetings under the royal chairmanship disappeared. Thus the most influential minister, who presided in the cabinet grew in importance, and soon became known as the Prime Minister, and was recognised as the head of the Ministry. By this time too the cabinet consisted of men all chosen from one political party. During Walpole's regime the cabinet increased in size, and once again it was found too big for secret business. History repeated itself and once more a secret committee appeared and we hear of 'private meetings at Sir Robert Walpole's'. Gradually this Private Committee once more increased in size, and the outside cabinet disappeared and the committee became all powerful as the cabinet. This process took the greater part of the eighteenth century. But we must remember that all through that period the king had power.

10. During the war the brothers Pelham became chief ministers. The elder, *Thomas Pelham*, Duke of Newcastle, was a foolish, fussy, incompetent man,

whose only claims to be a minister were his duchy, his skill in managing men, and his cunning in intrigue.

The Pelham ministry The younger brother, *Henry Pelham*, who was Prime Minister, was much abler than the duke, and was nearly as good a business man as Walpole. So long as he lived, the strife of parties was once more hushed. When he died in 1754, the old king prophesied that he would have no more peace.

The age itself was as dull as were the Pelhams. Men prided themselves on their reasonableness, their good sense, their kindness, and their freedom from excitement. The time was very prosperous. Trade was increasing and Britain had now become the greatest commercial nation in the world. Her ships were on every sea, and her merchants and tradesmen were piling up great fortunes. As wealth grew, people lived more comfortably, and were much less quarrelsome, bigoted, and narrow-minded than they had been fifty years earlier. Men were proud of their reasonableness and freedom from prejudice. On this account the eighteenth century is often called the *Age of Reason*. Men now thought enthusiasm an evil thing, and had lost their faith in great ideals. The best statesmen were clear-headed, commonplace men of business. The chief teachers of religion were equally prosaic and uninspiring. But in contrast to these, two great Englishmen strove with all their might to turn their countrymen's minds to higher things. These were *William Pitt*, the loftiest of eighteenth-century statesmen, and *John Wesley*, the founder of the Methodist movement.

11. Pitt began his public life as one of the opposition to Walpole. He did not belong to one of the great Whig families, but was the son of 'Diamond Pitt' who had made his fortune in India. He was never good at business or skilful in

wirepulling, but spoke with wonderful eloquence, and was high-minded, pure, and noble. He was a thorough patriot, and trusted the people rather than the scheming politicians of Parliament. He had not much power over the House of Commons, but the English people believed in him and loved him, calling him the *Great Commoner*. He took office under Henry Pelham, but on the Prime Minister's death in 1754 quarrelled with Newcastle, and went into opposition. A very confused period now followed. Newcastle was the exact opposite of Pitt in every way, and Pitt looked with great scorn on his bribes and his jobbery. But Newcastle was so narrow and greedy that he could not keep long in office. Pitt then tried his hand, but failed, because he had not sufficient support in Parliament. A new war was now breaking out, and it was necessary for England to have a strong Government. It was at last arranged, in 1757, that Pitt and Newcastle should be joint-ministers. Pitt gave the nation faith and courage, and carried on the war. Newcastle transacted the daily business, and managed all the bribery. This ministry remained in office for the rest of George II.'s life, and did great things.

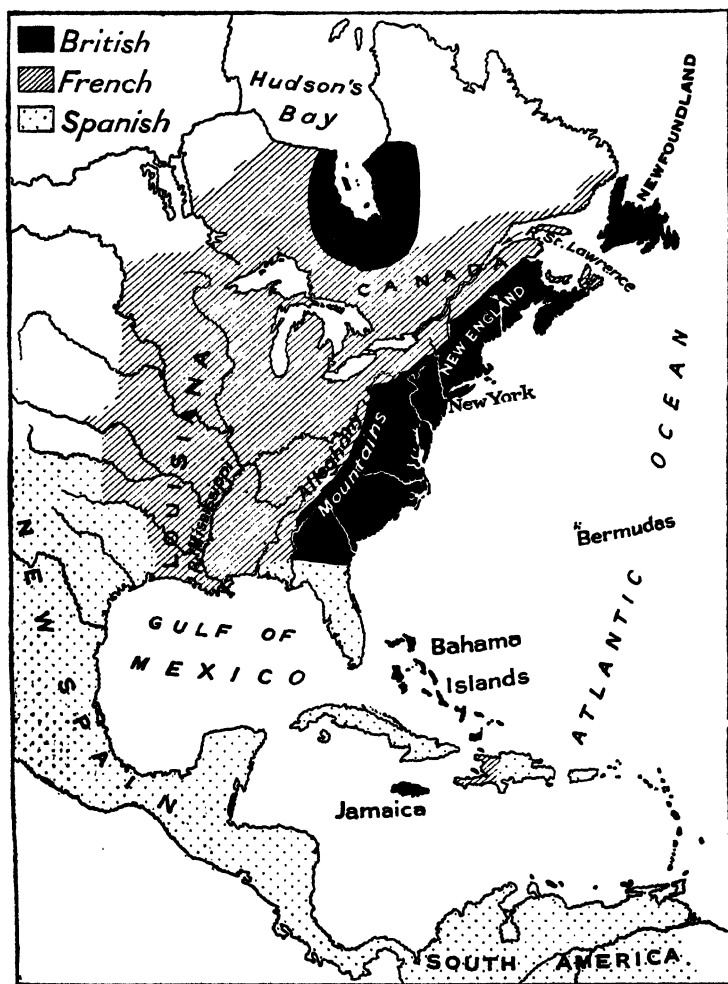
12. Wesley did for religion what Pitt did for politics. Both Churchmen and Dissenters had become easy-going and indifferent. And outside their influence lived great masses of the people sunk in ignorance and vice. Wesley was a clergyman of the Church of England who set up, first at Oxford and afterwards in London and all over the country, little societies devoted to works of piety and charity. The members of these bodies lived such regular and methodical lives that they were nicknamed the *Methodists*, and soon began to call themselves by that name. It was in 1738 that Wesley first began his work on a large scale. For many years he had no notion of separating himself

**John Wesley
and the
Methodists**

from the Church. But he gradually drifted apart from it, partly because it looked coldly on the fervour of the Methodists, and partly because Wesley was so fond of having his own way that he disliked any outside interference. Before long the Methodists became one of the greatest of religious bodies, both in England and America. But Wesley's influence went beyond his own followers. He taught that religion was not so much an affair of the head as of the heart, and his earnestness raised the whole tone of English religious life.

13. In 1756 a new war began which lasted until 1763, and is known as the *Seven Years' War*. It started through the rivalry of England and France in America and in India. We have seen how the English set up a large number of colonies in the eastern parts of North America. They were now thirteen in number, the last new one, *Georgia*, having been recently established and named after George II. But the French had also set up colonies in North America. One of these was *Canada*, along the Lower St. Lawrence, and another was *Louisiana*, along the Lower Mississippi. The French now formed a scheme of joining Canada and Louisiana by a series of forts, and of thus shutting up the English in the country between the Alleghany Mountains and the sea. If this design had succeeded, the whole history of America would have been altered. There might never have been the present English-speaking United States, ranging from the Atlantic to the Pacific. At first the French seemed likely to prevail. English settlers soon began to resist the French advance, but, though the English were the more numerous, the French were the better soldiers, and had many Red Indians in their pay. The English, therefore, got the worst of the early fighting.

14. In the same way English and French began



NORTH AMERICA IN 1756

fighting in India. Both England and France had in those days nothing but a few trading-stations in India, but as in America, the French were very active. They were jealous of the English success in trading and began to intrigue against them with Indian princes. The French found that by drilling Indian soldiers or *Sepoys* after the European fashion, they could make them fight as well as Europeans, who were, of course, hard to get in India. As in America, the French began by getting the better of the English. In 1756 their ally, the Nabob of Bengal, captured the British settlement of Calcutta. He thrust about a hundred and fifty prisoners into a small dark room, afterwards known as the *Black Hole of Calcutta*. In the course of one hot night, nearly all these unfortunate victims perished of heat, thirst, and suffocation.

15. As a result of all this, war broke out, in 1756, between France and England. It soon became a European as well as a colonial war. France had joined with her old enemy Austria, and several other powers in attacking Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, whose successes had made all Europe jealous of him. Frederick had no ally save England, so that England and Prussia had to fight nearly all Europe.

16. The war began with disasters on every side. Even on the sea England was not successful. In the Mediterranean Admiral *Byng* ran away from the French without fighting. The Government shot *Byng* for his cowardice. The French said that they did it to encourage the other commanders.

17. It was now that Pitt and Newcastle joined together. Pitt was as confident in himself as in his country. 'I know,' he said, 'that I can save this

**The English
and French
in India**

**Beginnings
of the
Seven Years'
War**

**Admiral
Byng
shot**

country, and I know that no one else can.' He soon inspired both soldiers and sailors with his own enthusiasm. He had a wonderful skill in picking out the right men to be his generals and admirals and before long British victories wiped out the memory of defeat. Frederick of Prussia was helped in his heroic struggle against overwhelming odds. The French, who had overrun Hanover, were defeated in 1759 at the Battle of *Minden*, and driven across the Rhine. French colonies were seized all over the globe. But the greatest of the English successes were the conquest of Canada and the conquest of Bengal.

**Pitt saves
England**

18. In 1759 Pitt sent *General Wolfe* to capture *Quebec*, the capital of Canada. The city stands on the top of steep cliffs, which are washed by the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles. Wolfe climbed up the cliffs by night, and drew up his troops on the *Heights of Abraham*, a plain just above the town. In the battle that followed Wolfe himself was slain. But before his death he learned that the French were utterly defeated. Quebec fell, and before long all Canada was conquered by the English.

**The conquest
of Canada**

19. The fortune of war in India was changed by the genius of *Robert Clive*. He had been a clerk at Madras, but during the earlier war with France had turned soldier, and showed a wonderful power of exciting the enthusiasm of his men. In 1757 he went to Bengal at the head of a little army. There he won the *Battle of Plassey* over the huge hosts of the Nabob, and the result was the conquest of Bengal.

**The conquest
of Bengal**

20. In the midst of these glories the old king died, in 1760. His foolish son Frederick was already dead, and Frederick's son now became George III.

**Death of
George II.**

QUESTIONS

1. What did Walpole's cleverness as administrator consist in? What causes favoured his becoming the first Prime Minister in England?

2. What attempts were made by Walpole to improve the trade and finances of the country? What causes led to his fall?

3. Why did England take part in the War of the Austrian Succession? Mention the chief battles fought in the course of the war.

4. Write a few sentences about the *Forty-five*. How do you account for its failure? What steps were taken by the English government to curb the Highlanders?

5. Tell how the cabinet government developed during the days of the first two Georges.

6. What causes brought about the Seven Years' War? How did Pitt save England? What do you know about his early life and career? What was his attitude towards the Colonies?

CHAPTER XXXV

George III., 1760-1820

(Married Charlotte of Mecklenburg)

Principal Dates :

- 1760. Accession of George III.
- 1763. Seven Years' War ended
- 1765. The Stamp Act.
- 1770-1782. Lord North's Ministry.
- 1775-1783. War of American Independence
 - 1775. Battle of Bunker's Hill.
 - 1778. Capitulation of Saratoga.
 - 1781. Capitulation of York Town.
 - 1783. Coalition of Fox and North.
- 1783-1801. Ministry of William Pitt.
 - 1788. Trial of Warren Hastings began.
 - 1789. Outbreak of the French Revolution.
- 1793-1802. War against the French Revolution.
 - 1796. Napoleon wins his first great victories.
 - 1798. Battle of the Nile.
 - 1800. Union of Britain and Ireland.
 - 1802. Treaty of Amiens.
- 1803-1815. War against Napoleon.
 - 1805. Battle of Trafalgar.
 - 1806. Death of Pitt and Fox.
 - 1807. Slave-Trade abolished.
- 1807-1830. The long Tory rule.
- 1808-1814. Peninsular War.
 - 1809. Battle of Talavera.
 - 1814. Napoleon banished to Elba.
 - 1815. Battle of Waterloo.
- 1810-1820. Regency of George, Prince of Wales.
- 1820. Death of George III

1. George III. was the first Hanoverian king born in this country, and was proud of being a Briton. He was not quick, and had not been well educated. But he was very persevering and dogged. When he once made up his mind to get a thing, nothing could turn him from his purpose. He lived a very simple life, enjoying the country, and farming, and caring little for pomp and show. He meant to do what was best,

**George III.'s
character
and policy**



GEORGE III. IN HIS CORONATION ROBES, AFTER ALLAN RAMSAY

and was honourable and religious. He was fond of power, and very eager to have as much authority as the law left him. In particular he wanted really to choose his own ministers. He hated the Whigs, because he thought they had taken this power from him.

2. Now the Whigs were not popular. They were a close body of nobles and gentry, very greedy for office, and very narrow. Had George been wise, the mass

of Englishmen would have gladly joined him in attacking the Whigs. Unluckily, George did not go the right way to work. He not only made the Whigs angry, but disgusted most of his subjects. Pitt shared George's dislike of the Whig nobles, but George never saw the greatness of Pitt, hating able men as a rule, and preferring to be served by dull people who would do what he told them.

**George III.'s
first struggles
for power**

He turned both Newcastle and Pitt out of office as soon as he could, and made the Peace of Paris with France in 1763. There was no harm in the peace being made, and England obtained excellent terms. She retained her

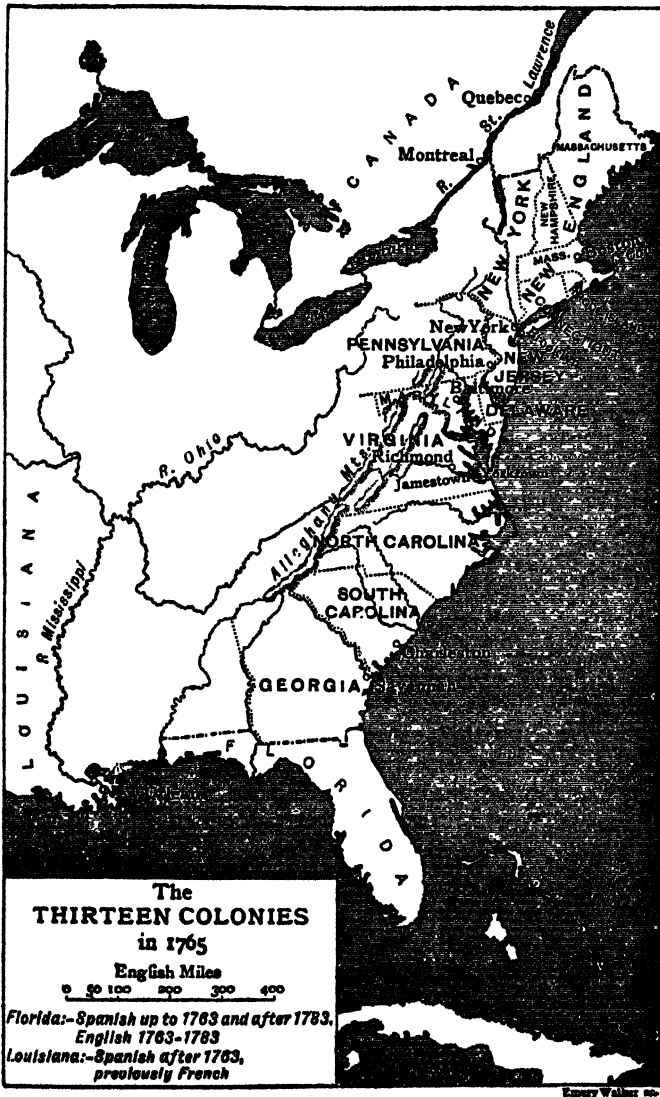
**Peace of
Paris**

conquests in Canada from France, and from Spain she received Florida. Spain in return obtained from France her claims to the land beyond the Mississippi, and France thus disappeared from the mainland of America altogether. But for England this meant a new danger, for with the disappearance of French armies the English colonies in America felt less need of assistance from England, and were ready to grumble at the interference of the British government in their affairs. England also gained some French West Indian islands, and in India received the Northern Circars, though the conquests from France were returned to her. The way in which George had arranged the peace disgusted his ally, Frederick of Prussia, who felt that he had been deserted by his English allies, and bore them much illwill. However, George's chief wish was to get more power at home, and he knew that he could only do so when there was peace. Yet the different ministries he chose were not really able to do the work of the Pitt-Newcastle ministry. They were very much divided, and none of them lasted very long. Even Pitt could not keep together a ministry now. George made him Lord Chatham, and at last

gave him office. But Chatham was in bad health, and soon resigned. At last, in 1770, George got a minister after his own heart. This was *Lord North*, the first Tory Prime Minister since the days of Anne. North was so easy-going that he let George rule as he pleased. George liked this so much that he kept North in office until 1782.

3. George's blunders caused him much trouble at home. One of his foolish mistakes was the arrest and prosecution of a scurrilous writer *John Wilkes*, who attacked the government in a paper called the *North Briton*. The king's ministers went beyond the law, and Wilkes was awarded damages and became a popular hero. He had for a time to flee to France because of another offence. When he returned he was elected to Parliament and the House of Commons most foolishly refused to accept him and even declared his defeated rival the member. This usurpation of power put them quite in the wrong; made Wilkes a far more important man than he deserved to be, and put Parliament into disgrace with all moderate men. But far more dangerous and lasting were the mistakes the king and his ministers made in dealing with the American colonies. During the Seven Years' War, the thirteen English colonies in America had helped to conquer Canada from the French. But the war had cost a great deal, and George thought that the Americans ought to pay something towards it. This was reasonable enough, but the right way to get this done would have been to ask the colonists themselves to make a contribution. Instead of this a *Stamp Act* was passed in 1765 by the British Parliament, which ordered that Americans should use stamped paper on which they were to write legal documents, as was the case in England. The Americans said that they ought not to be taxed by the Parliament at London, because they sent no representatives to it.

**American
taxation**



They raised so great an outcry that the Stamp Act was soon repealed. Unluckily a few years later another attempt was made to tax America. Chatham was then chief minister, but he was away from London and very ill. Though he had always opposed the Stamp Act, the other ministers passed a law that tea and other articles taken into America should pay a duty to the British Government. The Americans were more angry than ever, and refused to pay the new duties. Chatham soon got well again, resigned office, and backed up the Americans. When the first shiploads of tea that were to pay the new duty arrived at Boston in America, a number of men dressed up as Red Indians boarded the ships in the harbour, and threw all the tea into the sea. Parliament tried to punish Boston for this act, and America resolved to resist.

4. The blame was by no means all on one side. It was stupid of George and his ministers to force the Americans to pay taxes without asking their leave. But there were some Americans who wanted to be independent of England, and did their best to make their grievances seem bigger than they really were. The truth was that neither the Americans nor the British took a really broad view of the situation. The only man who did so was Chatham. He was enthusiastically on the side of the Americans in resisting the Stamp Act and the other taxes. But he gloried in the fact that nearly all North America had become subject to British rule and he thought that it was the most important thing of all that the British race should all keep together in a single state under a single king. He was grieved to hear how easily the Americans forgot that they were Englishmen in their hatred of George and his ministers. But few listened to Chatham either in America or in Britain.

5. The Americans now chose a sort of Parliament,

called a Congress in which all the thirteen colonies were represented. They raised troops, and in 1775 fighting broke out. After this the Americans issued a *Declaration of Independence*, in which they declared that the thirteen colonies would be no subjects of King George any longer, but an absolutely free people. Now it was no use negotiating. Lord North, when too late, tried to smooth over matters, but the Americans would not go back on what they had done. At

**The Declara-
tion of Inde-
pendence**



GEORGE WASHINGTON

(After Gilbert Stuart, Boston Museum)

last, in 1778, they won a great success by forcing the British army, commanded by *General Burgoyne*, to surrender at *Saratoga*.

6. The worst sides of the quarrel now began to show themselves. Foreign nations, like France and Spain, which had been beaten by Britain during the Seven Years' War, were delighted to hear that the English who lived in America had given up all connection with the English who still lived in the old country. They rejoiced

**France and
Spain help
America**

at the weakening of the British race. They professed to feel great sympathy for the Americans, and began to send them help. After Saratoga France thought it was safe to make an alliance with America.

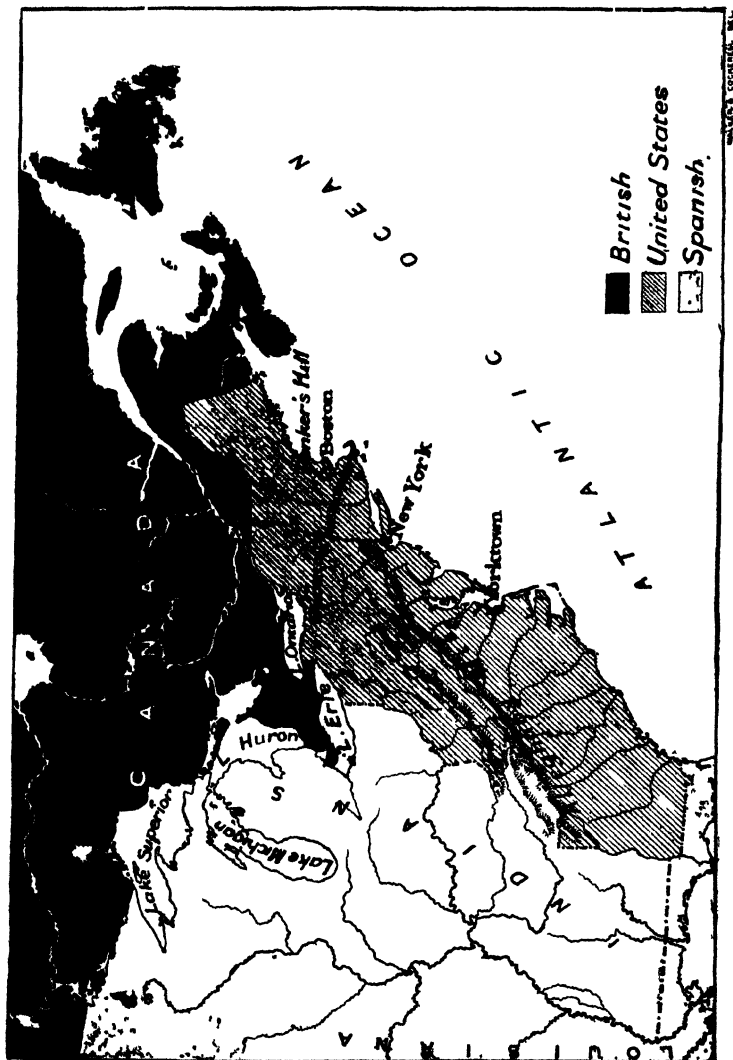
7. Chatham was mightily indignant that France should have stepped in between Great Britain and her colonies. He was now dying, but he

**Chatham
and Ameri-
can inde-
pendence**

managed to crawl down to the House of Lords to deliver the last of his speeches.

In it he protested very strongly against any recognition of the independence of America. It was not that he wished to check American freedom. But he saw clearly that a united British race would be freer than one divided against itself, and he was deeply grieved that the British Empire, which he had done so much to form, should thus be rent in twain. A few days afterwards he died. If King George had trusted him, or if Chatham had been easier to work with, America and Britain need not have parted company.

8. Spain, Holland, and other countries followed the example of France. This was disastrous for England as it meant that for a time she lost the control of the sea on which depended her ability to send troops and supplies to America and India. She had soon to fight not only her own revolted sons, but to struggle against half Europe. In India Warren Hastings, the first Governor-General, found himself faced with a Mahratta war, and then with wars against the Nizam of Hyderabad, and Hyder Ali of Mysore, aided by the French. It was not until 1784 that Hastings managed to end the struggle by the Treaty of Mangalore, signed with Tipu, Hyder Ali's son. Meanwhile in America things were going to the bad, and for a time it looked as if the day of England was over. Though George and North struggled bravely, they were not able enough to conduct the war successfully as Chatham would have done. The loss of the command of the sea was fatal.



In 1781 a second English army was beleaguered at York Town, and when a French fleet, instead of an English, appeared on the horizon, the army was forced to surrender to the Americans. Thus America was lost and it was no good trying to win it back. At last after many disasters *Admiral Rodney* won a naval victory in the West Indies, which gave England the command of the sea once more, and enabled her to relieve Gibraltar which had been besieged by the Spaniards. Thus in 1783 when peace was made by the Treaty of Versailles England did not suffer as severely as might have been expected at the crisis of the war. England recognised the *Independence of America*, and withdrew her claims to the territories which lay to the west of the colonies. This meant that the United States were able to expand right across the continent until their territory reached the Pacific. Canada was restricted to the northern part of the continent, and Florida was given back to Spain, though later she sold it to the United States.

9. Before the end of the American War, North had resigned. A period of great confusion now ensued.

The Coalition and its failure

For a time George was forced to give office to his enemies the Whigs, but he soon drove them out again. But now *Charles James Fox*, the new Whig leader, formed a *coalition* with North the Tory. George had to admit the Coalition into office, but he at once tried to get rid of it. For this purpose he turned to Chatham's son, *William Pitt the Younger*, a young man of four-and-twenty, who had already made himself famous by his speeches, and was worshipped by many by reason of his name. Pitt, like his father, did not love the Whigs, and believed that the king ought to choose his ministers freely. He now taught George how to get rid of the Coalition and yet make himself popular with his people. He took office though there was a strong majority against him in the Commons. Soon a strong feeling

of sympathy arose for the plucky young minister and the stubborn and homely king. In 1783 a general election gave Pitt a majority, and showed that the friend of the king was also the favourite of the electors. This popularity continued. Pitt was Prime Minister from 1783 to 1801, and only gave up office then at his own desire. The victory of George and Pitt was also a triumph for the people. King and people united



WILLIAM PITT

(From the Portrait at Apsley House)

could defy the Whig nobles. Chatham had been supported by the people as much as was his son, but he had never had the confidence of the king. He had therefore been obliged to make terms with the Whigs whom his son had successfully defied.

10. The younger Pitt was not a dazzling genius like his father. Unlike Chatham, however, he was business-like and clear-headed, and could work easily with others. He was a shrewd financier, a wise and liberal

ruler, who always wished to do what was best for his country. He desired to make many great reforms, but he was inclined to drop his projects if he met with much opposition. He was the first Prime Minister who wished to change the way of electing members of Parliament so as to make the Commons represent the nation better. Unluckily his friends supported him so little that he dropped his proposal for *Parliamentary Reform*. Pitt took great pains to win foreign alliances for England, so that she should not stand by herself as she had done during the American War. At the same time he made a treaty with France that immensely increased the trade between France and England. Under him the country became exceedingly prosperous, and peace was preserved for more than ten years.

**The rule of
the Younger
Pitt**

11. Pitt also carried a bill for the better government of India, which set up a Board of Control in England to supervise the political work of the East India Company. This was becoming increasingly important owing to the work of Warren Hastings, the great Governor-General, who, following in the footsteps of Clive, had increased the power of the Company greatly, both by his victories and by his skill as an administrator. In 1785 Hastings returned to England and a few years later was accused by the House of Commons of oppressing and maltreating the Hindoos. His *impeachment*, or trial before the House of Lords, which began in 1788, was a very long one, but at last he was acquitted of the main charges. Violent and high-handed Hastings doubtless was, but the English showed little gratitude to him for his great services to his country. However, George III. always stood his friend.

**Warren
Hastings in
India. His
impeach-
ment**

12. Great changes were now coming over the country. Up to George III.'s reign Great Britain had been a land of farmers and merchants, and its manufactures

were small. Some brilliant discoveries made it possible to manufacture goods much more easily and cheaply than before. Such were the *Spinning-jenny*, which made it possible to spin yarn more quickly and cheaply; the *power-loom*, which did the same for weaving yarn into cloth; and, above all, the *steam-engine*, which enabled all machines to be driven more regularly and at less cost than by water or hand power. Moreover, better roads were made, and canals were dug, so that the goods could be more easily taken from place to place.

**The age of
Inventions**

13. Before long Britain became a great manufacturing country, sending its goods to all the world. Population grew, especially in the north, where large manufacturing towns rose rapidly wherever there was coal, or iron, or cheap communication with the sea. The methods of manufacture were now changed. Up to now, goods had been made on a small scale by workmen in their own cottages. This was called the *Domestic System* of manufactures. But now the *Factory System* grew up, by which cloth was woven and iron cast in huge buildings called factories, where many hundreds of workmen were employed. The result was that there was much greater inequality of wealth, and the number of the population increased enormously now that there were so much greater opportunities of finding work. All these changes, which made our country the first manufacturing nation in the world, have been sometimes called the *Industrial Revolution*. But though more money was made in England, and more people lived in it, this growth of population brought many troubles with it. The poor increased in numbers, and were very badly cared for. Trade was sometimes slack; and so many workmen fell out of employment. Neither masters nor men in the new manufacturing

**Industrial
Revolution :
Britain
becomes
a great seat
of manu-
factures**

towns had any voice in returning members to Parliament. Many of the workmen were so wretched and badly treated that they had little reason to be proud of their country or to stand up for her in her day of trouble.

There was another great change going on all over the country which altered the way in which people lived.

Agricultural Revolution For many hundreds of years it had been usual for the countryfolk to co-operate in cultivating their land. Most peasants had a little land lying in strips amidst the land of the other villagers. The result of this *Open Field System* as it was called, was to force most men to grow the same crops at the same time, and so to discourage experiment and improvement. It meant too that the lazy fellow who would not keep his ground clean was a nuisance to all his neighbours. Now the wealthier farmers began to redistribute the land of the village; to group all their own land together and to surround their fields with fences. This *Enclosure Movement* had been going on from time to time but from about 1760 it became a very common thing. The immediate result was to force many peasants in each village to give up their land, for by enclosure they lost the right to common pasture and often could not afford to pay the costs of enclosure. They generally sold their strips for a few pounds, and either left the village, or stayed on as landless men earning their living as labourers. Thus England gradually became a country of fair-sized farms, cultivated either by their owners, or by tenants, helped by labourers working for a weekly wage. This change is sometimes called the *Agricultural Revolution*, and it had an immense effect on the social life of the country, and for many years caused a great deal of distress.

14. These changes were still going on in England when, in 1789, the *French Revolution* broke out.

Since the great days of Louis XIV. things had been going steadily to the bad in France. The kings were careless despots. The poor paid huge taxes, while the rich were let off very lightly. The clergy and nobles had all sorts of oppressive privileges from which the masses suffered. The American War had cost France so much that the country had become bankrupt. At last things fell into such a wretched state that something desperate had to be done. The French king, *Louis XVI.*, meant well, but was not wise enough to act rightly. However, in 1789 he summoned an assembly of his people, which called itself the *National Assembly*. This body, like the Long Parliament, took everything into its own hands. It abolished all the oppressive privileges of the clergy and nobles. It took away a great deal of the king's power. It set up a new system of government, not unlike the English Constitution. But the new system worked badly. Louis XVI. was always intriguing against it, while an extreme party of reformers grew up which wanted still further changes. At last the king was taken prisoner, tried, and beheaded. A Republic was proclaimed in France, and the most thoroughgoing lovers of change got possession of power. The period of their rule is called the *Reign of Terror*, since they sought to frighten everybody into obeying them by violence. Thousands of Frenchmen were beheaded besides the king and queen.

The French Revolution

15. At first England was in sympathy with the French who seemed to be imitating the English Constitution. Before long, however, opinion changed. The execution of the king and the Reign of Terror spread alarm all over Europe. Things looked more dangerous since the French urged all other nations to follow their example, and there were plenty of people in England, especially in the new manufacturing towns

England and the French Revolution

of the north, who were so dissatisfied with the existing state of things, that they might easily have done so. Austria and Prussia went to war against France and in 1793, after the execution of Louis XVI., France declared war against England.

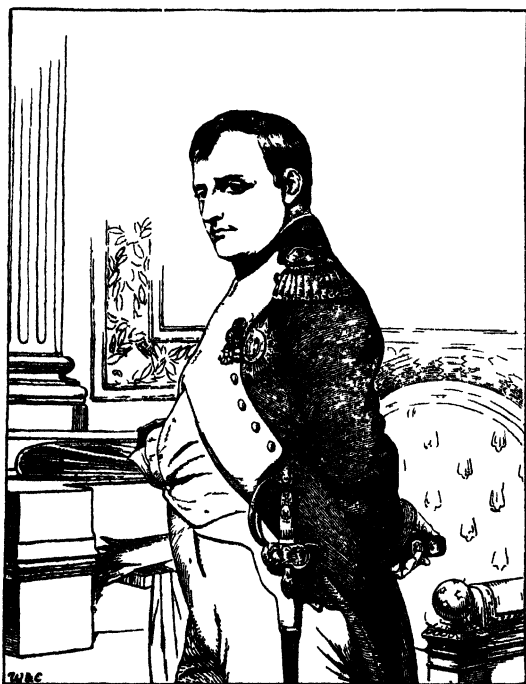
16. For nearly nine years England and France were at war. Pitt, so successful in peace, did not prove to be a fortunate war minister, and the French won many victories over the allies. As time went on, France forced many of the continental powers to make peace with her and help her. Before long England was fighting the Dutch and the Spaniards as well as the French. She did badly on land, but triumphed at sea. The *Battle of St. Vincent* was won in 1797 by Admiral Jervis, and the *Battle of the Nile* won in 1798 by Admiral Nelson.

17. Victory at sea did stave off invasion, but could not prevent the French doing what they liked on the Continent. Since 1796 a Corsican artillery officer, named *Napoleon Bonaparte*, had been winning brilliant victories for the French. Then Bonaparte, the successful soldier, became, like Oliver Cromwell, the strongest man in his country. Before long he upset the Government and made himself the despot of France. Just as Cromwell drove out the Long Parliament, so did Bonaparte expel the French Assembly. In each case the victorious general ruled the country by the sword. At first Bonaparte called himself First Consul, but before long he changed his title and became Napoleon, Emperor of the French. Then, having got supreme power in France, he was anxious to rest for a time. He therefore made peace with his various enemies. In 1802 England concluded peace with him in the *Treaty of Amiens*. Bonaparte was now able to turn to his great constructive work in France. He had a genius for

**The war
against the
French
Revolution**

**The Treaty
of Amiens**

organization and his work during the few short years that he was able to give to peaceful reforms, has left a permanent mark on France to this day. He made friendly terms with the Catholic Church, and restored



NAPOLÉON BONAPARTE

(After the Painting by Paul Delaroche)

the authority of the Pope in France, but complete religious toleration was established. He reorganised education throughout France, established a regular system of graded state schools leading up to the University of France. He appointed a commission

to draft a series of legal codes which brought reason and order into the laws of France and which are the basis of French law today. Such reforms as these were of more real value to France than the passing glories of great victories.

18. Pitt had to fight the French Revolution in England as well as on the Continent. There was great alarm lest the ideas of the French should get a firm hold in this country. Very few now ventured to speak openly in favour of the French. All the Tories followed Pitt in his war against the new ideas. So also did most of the Whigs, who at first had been so enthusiastic for them. But in the days of the Reign of Terror the majority of the Whigs, headed by the famous orator and writer, *Edmund Burke*, became even more violently excited against the French than the Tories had been. However, Charles James Fox remained true to his old enthusiasm for the Revolution. But, as in the case of the American War, he showed so little patriotism that he became very unpopular. The Whigs lost ground immensely because they were thought not to be good Englishmen. But Fox had more right on his side when he protested against the stern measures now passed in England against those who wished to imitate the French. Even to ask for reform of Parliament was now looked upon as a revolutionary demand, though Pitt himself had once brought forward a Reform Bill. But the real reason why there was no revolution in England was that people were better off than the French had been, and were therefore less tempted to upset everything.

19. Ireland was also a great trouble to Pitt. Things were by no means so bad in Ireland as they had been early in the eighteenth century, though there was still much that was very unsatisfactory. The system set up in the days of William III. had, however,

broken down. In the days of the American War the Irish Parliament had demanded that it should be made quite independent of England, and had obtained what it asked for in 1782. The leader of the Irish was the eloquent Grattan, and the independent Irish Parliament is therefore often called *Grattan's Parliament*. But the Irish Parliament, though more powerful than before, remained a Protestant assembly, and unfriendly to the Catholic Irish. However, it treated them better than earlier Governments, and repealed the hardest of the stern laws against them. But in other ways Grattan's Parliament did not manage well. It made few attempts to improve the wretched condition of the peasants, who even in good years could hardly get enough to eat. Pitt was very anxious to make Ireland more prosperous, and did several wise things for it, but he could not go so far as he wished.

**Ireland
under
Grattan's
Parliament**

20. After the outbreak of the French Revolution a society was set up in Ireland called the *United Irishmen*, which invited the French to invade Ireland. This came to nothing, but in 1798 a dangerous rebellion broke out, inspired by the United Irishmen. All sorts of cruelties were perpetrated by the rebels, but before long they were defeated and the revolt was stamped out with equal cruelty. The rebels had done their best to ill-treat the Protestants, and now the victorious Protestants had an ample revenge.

**The United
Irishmen
and the
Rebellion of
1798**

21. Pitt saw that the way to make Ireland peaceful was to set up an impartial rule which would keep the Irish from fighting with each other. He therefore proposed to unite the Irish and British Parliaments, and sought to make the Roman Catholics favourable to it by promising to admit them to offices and to Parliament. This was

**The Union
with Ireland**

called *Catholic Emancipation*. The chief opposition to the union came from the Protestants, who still controlled the Parliament in Dublin. But by means of lavish bribery Pitt carried the *Act of Union* through the Irish Parliament in 1800. The king however refused to allow him to fulfil his promises to the Catholics. Some of the bigoted Irish Protestants had persuaded George that to admit Catholics to office would be breaking his coronation oath to uphold the Church. Pitt was so much annoyed at this that in 1801 he resigned his office. But George's triumph had very evil results. Union without Catholic emancipation was but a one-sided measure, and the Catholics, who otherwise might have welcomed it, became more disgusted with the union than the Protestants had been. In few things did George do more harm than in spoiling Pitt's plan of an equal union.

22. Pitt was not long out of office. The Emperor Napoleon soon picked a quarrel with England, and war with France, which had only ended in 1802, began again in 1803. Napoleon was now at peace with all Europe, and thought that it would be a splendid chance of attacking England by itself. He collected an army in the ports of northern France, and nothing but Nelson and the fleet kept Britain from invasion. The danger was now so pressing that there was a great demand that Pitt should once more be minister. In 1804 he was again in office, and showed wonderful energy in preparing to resist the French. He persuaded Austria and Russia to join England in fighting Napoleon, but the French emperor defeated the Austrians in the field and forced them to make peace. Napoleon found the Russians harder to beat, but in 1807, after much fierce fighting, he made an alliance with them. It was agreed that the Tsar of Russia should do what he liked in the East, while Napoleon could do what he liked in

**The war
against
Napoleon**

the West. For six years this alliance endured, and for all that time Napoleon's position seemed to be stronger than ever.

23. Luckily, Napoleon's power was only on land. At the moment of his greatest victories, Nelson des-



LORD NELSON

(From the Picture by Abbot in the National Portrait Gallery)

troyed the French and Spanish fleets in the famous *Battle of Trafalgar*, off the coast of Spain, in 1805. The enemies' fleet, which was stronger than the British, was arranged in the form of a crescent. Nelson split

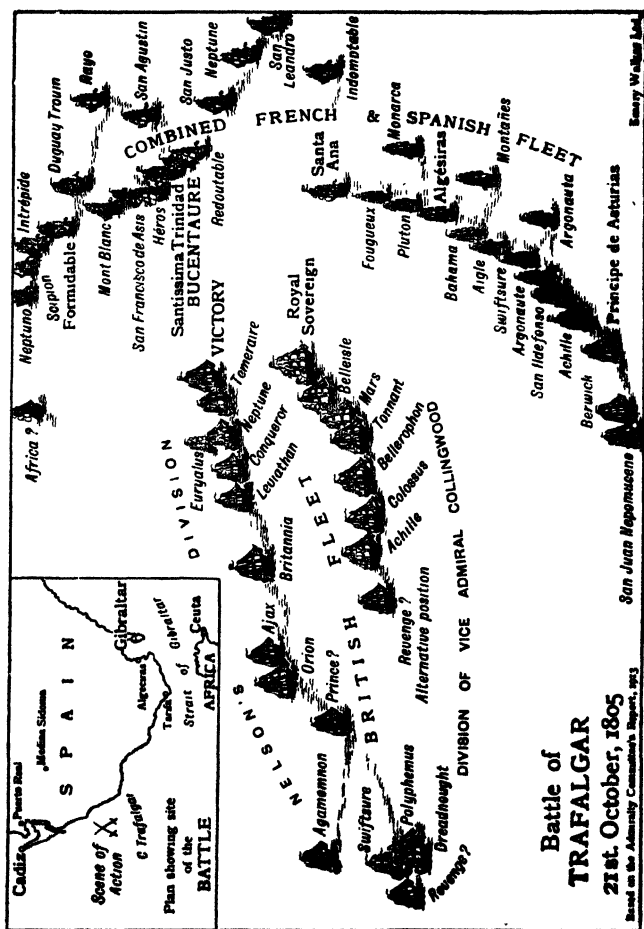
up his fleet into two squadrons, which sailed right against the French and Spaniards and broke them into three divisions. As Nelson was leading the northern line in his flagship, the *Victory*, he was struck down by a bullet from a French man-of-war that lay close alongside. But he lived long enough to learn that his men had won a complete victory. Nelson's work lived after him. Henceforth England was in no danger of invasion. Napoleon might do as he pleased on the Continent. A few miles of sea made Britain safe from him. England owes a very great debt of gratitude to Nelson and his sailors. He was the greatest of all British admirals and the one who performed the most brilliant and useful service to his country.

24. Pitt died in 1806, worn out with the anxieties of his unsuccessful struggle against Napoleon. The best statesmen of all parties now united to form a ministry that would continue Pitt's resistance against the French. This was called the *Ministry of all the Talents*, because most of the men of talent, whether Whigs or Tories, were members of it. Among them was Fox, so long the enemy of the French war. But office soon convinced Fox that he had been wrong in opposing the war. Not England but Napoleon was the real cause of the struggle, and Fox now threw himself as heartily as Pitt had done into the work of defending his country. But before the end of 1806 Fox followed Pitt to the grave. They did not live quite long enough to see the passing of an *Act abolishing the slave-trade*, for which both had long been working. However, the Act was passed in 1807, and henceforth it was illegal for English ships to carry negroes from Africa to America to be sold there to slavery. Negro slavery remained nearly thirty years longer in our West Indian colonies, but some of its

**The Battle
of Trafalgar**

**Death of
Pitt and
Fox, and
the long
Tory rule**

worst horrors were at an end when the cruel slave-trade



was stopped. Soon after this George III. turned out the Ministry of all the Talents, and put a purely Tory

ministry in its place. The Tories remained in office till 1830. They were now, unlike Pitt, opposed to all change at home, but they worked doggedly and well in opposing the power of Napoleon.

25. In 1808 Napoleon tried to make his brother Joseph King of Spain. The Spaniards violently resisted, and, do what he could, the Emperor

**The Penin-
sular War**

was never able to put them down. This Spanish resistance to Napoleon was most important to England, because it gave her a chance of striking at him by land as well as at sea. Before long the best of the English generals, *Sir Arthur Wellesley*, was sent at the head of a British army to Spain. Wellesley was the son of an Irish peer. His elder brother, the Marquis Wellesley, had been Governor-General of India, and Sir Arthur had already made a name for himself by his victories in that country. From 1808 to 1814 he fought what was called the *Peninsular War* against Napoleon. He had everything against him. The Spaniards were very uncertain allies and the French troops were generally more numerous and better equipped. Yet the English general won several victories over the French. For the first of these, the Battle of *Talavera* in 1809, he was made a lord, and for later triumphs he was created *Duke of Wellington*. But though Wellington won many battles, he was often forced to retreat. But his courage, patience, and wisdom were so great that his troops never lost heart, and were always ready to fight again. No English general since Marlborough had done anything so brilliant as Wellington. Nothing save the dazzling genius of Napoleon could approach the rare qualities of command shown by the British leader in the Peninsula.

26. As time went on Napoleon's head was a little turned by his successes, and he strove to make himself despot of all Europe. But he could never succeed in

this, since, do what he could, he was unable to touch the island realm which he so bitterly hated. But by degrees his power became as odious to his subjects on the Continent as it had long been to Englishmen. At last, in 1812, he quarrelled with Russia, and failed in an attempt to invade that country. Then came the chance of Britain. Wellington's weary work of waiting was over in the Peninsula, and in 1813 he won his crowning victory at *Vittoria* by which Joseph Bonaparte was finally driven out of Spain. In the same year, 1813, Germany followed the example of Spain and Russia and rose against Napoleon. Prussia, Austria and Sweden joined forces and defeated Napoleon at the battle of Leipzig, called the 'Battle of the Nations', and drove him back to France. The result of all this was that in 1814 France itself was threatened with invasion. The French soldiers were taken from Spain to meet dangers nearer home, and Wellington, profiting by this, crossed the Pyrenees and invaded France on the south, while Austrians, Prussians, and Russians passed over the Rhine on the east. Unable to resist so many foes, Napoleon gave up his power in 1814, and was banished to the little island of Elba.

27. Napoleon was too restless to stay long in Elba, and in 1815 was back in France, where his old soldiers welcomed him and restored him to power. But he had still to fight all Europe, whose armies were gathering on every frontier of France. He fell first of all on the army of British, Germans, and Netherlanders collected in the Netherlands, of which Wellington was the general. The two greatest generals in Europe met for the first time in battle on 18th June 1815 at *Waterloo*, a few miles south of Brussels. After a long and fierce fight Napoleon was utterly defeated. He was once more driven from power, and forced to spend the rest of his

**The fall of
Napoleon**

**Napoleon's
return :
The Battle
of Waterloo**

life a prisoner in the island of St. Helena in the southern Atlantic. Thus the perseverance of England had at last triumphed by the destruction of the common foe of all the nations of Europe. But the struggle had been a very severe one, and Britain had suffered much during the long war.

28. After the defeat of Bonaparte the nations met to settle the boundaries of Europe at the Congress of Vienna. France was restored practically to the boundaries which had been hers before the Revolution, and the unity which she had forced by arms on Germany and Italy was undone. Thus Germany became once more a mass of states, small and large, held together by the loosest federation, and it was not until the rise of Prussia during the next fifty years and a couple of successful wars that the German Empire emerged into a strong militarist state. Italy was again divided into small principalities: some ruled by dukes, others under the control of Austria, or of the Pope, and some under small kings. Italy too was to achieve her unity under the royal house of Savoy only after a couple of wars. This policy of the Congress was a reaction against the growth of nation states which the French Revolution had encouraged. But the countries which had been fighting against Bonaparte were frightened of the danger of French influence, and so restored the old dynasties of kings and dukes, and a period of reaction set in.

The Congress of Vienna

29. The state of England after the war was very gloomy. The cost of living was high, the war had been very expensive and heavy taxes were imposed. In the country wages were very low, and in many cases the labourers were subsidised from the rates, and this encouraged the farmers to pay bad wages. In the new towns which had grown up recently during

Condition of England after the Napoleonic Wars

the war around the new factories, the people lived in hovels crowded together and worked very long hours under bad conditions for insufficient wages. In many cases these people had come into the towns from the country where they had been able to assist themselves with small gardens and farms; now they had to depend on their wages alone and were in a desperate plight. The peace meant a falling off in trade for a time, and this increased the difficulties. Discontent grew quickly, and men felt that if only the system of electing members to parliament could be improved things would soon be better. But for many years the Tories were in power and they feared any change in the system of election, and for some time the government carried out a policy of repression.

QUESTIONS

1. What were the political aims of George III.? What were his relations with the Whigs?
2. What did England gain by the Treaty of Paris in 1763?
3. What led to the War of the American Independence? Mention the causes that led to the failure of the English in the war.
4. In what respects did the Younger Pitt resemble and differ from his father? Describe his early career and character.
5. Indicate the changes that were introduced in the methods of manufactures and agriculture in the latter half of the 18th and 19th centuries. What were the results of these changes?
6. What causes brought about the French Revolution? Why did war break out between France and England? Mention the chief naval victories of England before the Treaty of Amiens was concluded.
7. Who was Grattan? What do you mean by Grattan's Parliament? What causes brought about the Act of Union of 1800? Tell its provisions.

8. Why was war renewed against France in 1803? What plan was adopted by Pitt to defeat Napoleon? Tell what you know of the Battle of Trafalgar.

9. What causes brought about the Peninsular war? What part did Wellington play in the war? Tell what you know about the Battle of Waterloo.

10. Tell how England was affected by the wars with France.

CHAPTER XXXVI

George IV., 1820-1830

(Married Caroline of Brunswick)

Principal Dates :

- 1820. Accession of George IV.
- 1827. Death of Canning.
- 1829. Catholic Emancipation passed.
- 1830. Opening of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway. Death of George IV.

1. George IV. came to the throne in 1820 : he had already acted as Prince Regent since 1810 for his poor old father who had been out of his mind for many years. **Character of George IV.** George IV. was vain, selfish, pleasure-loving, and idle. He had quarrelled badly with his father, and had in consequence made friends with the Whigs. But when he became Prince Regent he threw over the Whigs and kept the Tories in power. George III. had been so successful in winning back the power of choosing his own ministers that his son, if he had wished, might have changed the ministry. But he was as false to his political friends as to his father. One good thing came of George's weakness. He was not persistent enough to keep in his hands the power which his father had won. Even under George III. the revival of the royal authority had done harm. Under his sons it might have stood in the way of all reform.

2. The Tories had now been in office since 1807, but were divided among themselves. The chief ministers, when George IV. became king, belonged to the narrower section of the party. Their leader was

Lord Castlereagh, and the best of their young statesmen was *Sir Robert Peel*. These men were opposed to all great changes, and honestly believed that any real reform might pave the way to revolution. Fear of the French Revolution still had an over-strong influence on their minds. There was, however, a more liberal section of the Tory party, led by the brilliant and

**The Old and
the New
Tories**



GEORGE IV.

(From a Picture in the National Portrait Gallery)

eloquent *George Canning*, the favourite disciple of the younger Pitt. The Canningites, as they were called, were true to the policy of Pitt, who had been a friend of reform. Like Pitt, they were in favour of Catholic emancipation. They differed from the Whigs because they were opposed to reform of Parliament. In this they were less wise than Pitt, who had favoured Parliamentary reform before the Whigs had taken it up.

3. In 1822 Castlereagh committed suicide. The ministry was reconstructed so that the Canningites obtained a large share of power. It now passed laws abolishing the hard punishments for crime which in those days made thieving or forgery punishable by death. It cut down a number of taxes that interfered with trade. Peel, now Home Secretary, reformed the police system, by establishing the trained and effective police force which still exists. Canning made English foreign policy wiser than it had been since Waterloo. In those days the Greeks, who had been cruelly oppressed by the Turks, rose in revolt against their tyrants. Many people in England sympathised with the Greeks. Among them was the famous poet *Lord Byron*, who went to Greece to fight for the cause of freedom, but soon died of fever. The Russians also favoured the Greeks, and many Tories said that the Turks should be helped lest their decay should make Russia stronger in the East. Canning, however, managed to work along with Russia, and secure for the Greeks their liberty. Their success would have been more complete had Canning not died in 1827 before the question was settled.

4. Canning's successor was the *Duke of Wellington*. Unluckily, Wellington was not such a wise statesman as general. He was old-fashioned in his ideas, and belonged to the party which disliked Canning. But he had a high sense of duty and a keen eye for facts. He had long been opposed to Catholic emancipation. But the Catholic question was more pressing than ever. A very eloquent, energetic, and shrewd Irish barrister, *Daniel O'Connell*, formed a body called the *Catholic Association*, and stirred up a great agitation in Ireland. The best statesmen had long been in favour of doing this justice to the Catholics, but had promised George III. not to raise the question in his life time. George IV.,

**George
Canning**

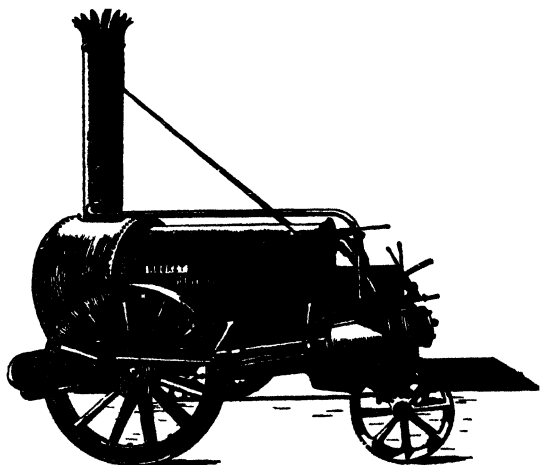
**Catholic
emanci-
pation**

professed to be of his father's mind, but he was too weak to hold out long. Wellington at last saw that there was a real prospect of civil war in Ireland if the Catholic question were not settled. He therefore changed his front, and in 1829 carried a Bill which allowed Catholics to sit in Parliament and hold offices under the Crown. A little before this he had repealed the Test Act, passed under Charles II., and still nominally in force. These measures relieved Dissenters as well as Catholics both in England and Ireland from the worst grievances from which they had suffered.

5. Towards the end of George IV.'s reign the first railways worked by steam-engines were opened. Since the great growth of our trade under George III. the need for better and quicker means of getting from place to place had been generally felt. Canals had done a great deal for the transport of heavy goods. Roads had been made smooth and hard through the improvements brought in by an engineer named *Macadam*. On them magnificently horsed coaches now conveyed passengers and mails at a rate of over ten miles an hour, both by night and day. Moreover, the roads were now safe from the *highwaymen* who had infested them nearly down to the end of the eighteenth century. But canals were slow and transit by road expensive. In the colliery districts the custom grew up of making *railroads* with iron rails, and running wagons with grooved wheels on them that coal might be taken cheaply to the ships. For many years these wagons were drawn by horses, and later by fixed steam-engines, long used for pumping and driving machinery, and more recently to a small extent for propelling ships. Then George Stephenson, a Tyneside engineer of great shrewdness, perfected a plan for putting the engine on wheels, so that it might run on rails and pull a train behind it. This new machine was called a *locomotive steam-engine*. The

**Railways
and steam-
ships**

first railway on which Stephenson's engines were largely used went between Stockton and Darlington. But the first really important railway for passengers as well as for goods was the line between Liverpool and Manchester, opened in 1830. On this line Stephenson's famous engine the *Rocket* drew a passenger train at over thirty miles an hour. Though lovers of



THE ROCKET

old ways shook their heads at railways, it was soon found that the new mode of locomotion was too convenient not to be generally used. In a very few years a network of railways spread all over the land. They enabled British trade to grow so fast that even the wonderful progress made in Pitt's days was soon out-distanced. What railways did for inland commerce, steamships did for sea trade. Britain, the country of their first employment, was thus enabled to get and

to maintain the highest place among the trading states of the world.

QUESTIONS

1. In what year did George IV. become king? How long was he king?
2. Tell what you know of Canning's foreign policy.
3. What were the political disabilities of the Catholics? Tell how, when and by whom they were removed.

CHAPTER XXXVII

William IV., 1830-1837

(Married Adelaide of Meiningen)

Principal Dates :

- 1830. Accession of William IV.
- 1832. The great Reform Act.
- 1833. Abolition of Negro Slavery.
- 1837. Death of William IV.

1. George IV. died in 1830 and was succeeded by his brother, William IV., who was called the sailor king, since as a young man he had served in the navy. He was easy-going, good-natured, and well-meaning, though not very wise, and rather eccentric. He was, and deserved to be, more popular than his brother. His children died young, so that the next in succession was his niece, the *Princess Victoria*, daughter of his younger brother, Edward, Duke of Kent.

2. The great event of William IV.'s short reign was the reform of Parliament. For long time it had been felt that the House of Commons did not properly represent the people. Its members had been chosen in the same way and by the same class of voters for many hundreds of years. Each county in England returned only two members. The greatest and richest counties, like Yorkshire or Lancashire, had no more representation than Rutland or Westmoreland. Many great towns,

**The move-
ment for
Parliamen-
tary reform**

such as Manchester, Leeds and Birmingham which had grown up since the representation of the town in Parlia-



WILLIAM IV.

ment had been fixed, did not send members to Parliament at all while many other towns, nicknamed '*rotten*

boroughs', had hardly any inhabitants or electors for their population had dwindled right away. Very few people had the right to vote anywhere; in the counties only the *freeholders*—that is, the landowners—could have a vote, while many borough members were elected by the Town Councils, and not by the people at all. The new manufacturing districts were particularly badly represented, and the rich manufacturers and merchants were indignant that all powers should be in the hands of the landlords. Moreover, the poor hoped that if they had votes they would be able to do something to make their condition better. Accordingly, a great cry was raised for what was called the reform of Parliament—that is to say, for a new law which should change the fashion of electing members of the House of Commons in such a way as to ensure that they were really chosen by the people. When this demand for reform was once raised, it became impossible to resist it.

3. The early movement for reform had been stopped by the French Revolution. Now the Whigs, headed by *Lord Grey*, took up the question, but the Prime Minister, Wellington, declared that he was opposed to all change in the constitution of Parliament. Reforming feeling, however, ran high and a general election drove Wellington from power, and ended the fifty years of Tory rule. Lord Grey formed a Whig ministry pledged to reform. He was supported not only by his own followers, but by most of the Canningites, who now deserted the Tories and supported reform. But there was still a great deal of discussion and agitation before the question could be settled. One Reform Bill was thrown out by the House of Lords after it had passed through the House of Commons. Riots broke out in several places, and civil war seemed possible. But Grey persuaded the king to promise to create enough new peers to carry the bill through the House of Lords.

**The Whigs
pass the
great
Reform Bill**

Wellington's common sense prevented the necessity of this grave step. He saw that the people meant to have reform, and that it was impossible for the Lords to stand against the national will. When the Bill again came before the Lords he stopped away, and persuaded so many others to do the same, that the Whig peers carried the Bill. Thus the *First Reform Act* became law in 1832. By it the rotten boroughs were abolished, and members were given to the great towns, and more members to the larger counties. A great increase in the number of persons allowed to vote was also made. The general result of the Bill was that the substantial middle classes, such as the farmers, and shopkeepers, and manufacturers, had most power. Few workmen obtained votes, and they were bitterly angry at the disappointment of their hopes. These radicals who demanded further reform soon developed the Chartist movement.

4. The Whigs remained in office for the rest of William IV.'s reign. After a time Lord Grey gave up his place, and *Lord Melbourne* became Prime Minister. Many other reforms were carried out during those years. One of these was the *abolition of negro slavery* (1833) in all British colonies. The slave-owners received a large sum of money by way of compensation; but it was, unfortunately, found very hard to get the freed slaves to work regularly, and the West Indies, which, since the loss of America, had been the most flourishing of the British colonies, gradually lost the prosperity which had been based on injustice and cruelty. Other Whig reforms were the *New Poor Law* (1834), which improved the ways in which relief was given to poor people out of the rates, and the *Municipal Corporation Reform Act* of 1835, which did for the Town Councils what the Bill of 1832 did for Parliament. By it every town was governed by a mayor and a popularly chosen

**Further
Whig
reforms**

town council. The new boroughs thus had their local Parliaments, just as the whole nation had its Parliament at Westminster. But the Whigs soon became tired of making changes, and lost a good deal of their popularity. Melbourne was still, however, Prime Minister when William died, in 1837, and his niece, Victoria, became Queen Victoria.

QUESTIONS

1. Tell why the House of Commons failed to represent the people properly before 1832. What were the provisions of the Reform Act of 1832?
2. Point out the results of the Reform Act of 1832 and mention the beneficial measures passed by the reformed Parliament.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

Victoria, 1837-1901

(Married Prince Albert of Coburg)

Principal Dates :

- 1837. Accession of Victoria.
- 1841. Peel succeeds Melbourne.
- 1846. The Corn Laws abolished, and Peel driven from office.
- 1848. The Chartist movement fails.
- 1852. The Coalition Ministry of Whigs and Peelites.
- 1854-1856. The Crimean War.
- 1857. The Indian Mutiny.
- 1858. India brought under the Crown.
- 1865. Death of Palmerston.
- 1867. Second Reform Bill.
- 1868-1874. The great Gladstone Ministry.
- 1869. Disestablishment of the Irish Church.
- 1870. Elementary Education Act.
- 1870-1871. War between France and Prussia.
- 1874-1880. The Disraeli Ministry.
- 1878. Treaty of Berlin.
- 1880-1885. The Second Gladstone Ministry.
- 1884-1885. The Third Reform Bill.
- 1885. Death of Gordon.
- 1886. Gladstone declares for Home Rule.
- 1886-1892. The Salisbury Unionist Ministry.
- 1892-1895. The last Gladstone Ministry.
- 1895-1901. The Third Salisbury Ministry.
- 1898. Conquest of the Sudan.
- 1899. Beginning of the Boer War.
- 1901. Death of Queen Victoria.

1. The new queen was only eighteen years old. But she showed a rare courage and discretion, and before long made herself popular. At first she depended a good deal on Lord Melbourne. But Melbourne was

not a strong minister, and had great difficulty in keeping office. There was, moreover, a danger in the queen

being advised by one party only. Luckily this was got rid of when in 1840 Victoria married her cousin *Albert of Coburg*.

**The Queen
and Prince
Albert**

Prince Albert was called the *Prince Consort*, and though young, was thoughtful, hard-working and unselfish. He proved a much better counsellor for the queen than any party politician. His position was a very difficult one. He was stiff in his ways, and in many respects more German than English. This prevented him being popular at first, but the more he was known the better he was liked. He never thought about himself, but always about his wife and her people, and he worked hard in doing the things which the queen found it difficult to do herself. After his death in 1861, it was clear how his self-denying policy had brought the ancient monarchy into closer touch with the new system which began with the Reform Bill. In the course of this long reign the full effects of this measure were gradually worked out. Two other Reform Bills made the Government more and more dependent upon the people, until at last nearly every male won a share in the government of the country. It is in no small measure to the wisdom of Prince Albert, and the devotion of the queen, that, despite these changes, the monarchy became more popular than it had been for a long time.

2. The state of the country was unsatisfactory. Ireland was not contented with Catholic Emancipation, and O'Connell was now demanding the

Repealers

Repeal of the Union. The Whig ministers would not agree to this, but they were obliged to conciliate O'Connell and his followers (who were called the Repealers), since they needed Irish votes to keep themselves in office.

In England, and Scotland there was also much

discontent. Working-men found they were no better



QUEEN VICTORIA

Photo : Chancellor & Sons.

off after the Reform Bill than they had been before

it. Wages were low, and the price of bread was kept very high by the *Corn Laws*, which prevented foreign corn being brought into the country, because of the heavy duty imposed upon it. Some extreme men started an agitation for what was called the *People's Charter*. They were therefore called *Chartists*. They asked for manhood suffrage, voting by ballot, annual Parliaments, equal electoral districts, abolition of property qualification for members of Parliament and the payment of members. For many years people feared a revolution, though many of the things the Chartists demanded have since been quietly granted. Melbourne had a difficult task in dealing with so much discontent.

3. The Tories had a wise leader in Peel, a Lancashire manufacturer's son. Peel thoroughly understood the middle classes, and knew well that they had no eagerness to upset the institutions of the country. But he saw clearly that his party must change with the times. He adapted his policy to the new state of things. He dropped the unpopular name of Tory and called himself a *Conservative*. He profited by the mistakes of the Whigs, and at last, at the general election of 1841, the Conservatives won a large majority. Melbourne resigned and Peel became Prime Minister. Peel now showed his greatness as a financier. He carried out many important reforms. For five years he governed the Empire well and vigorously. But during that period he was gradually changing his views as to how the country ought to be taxed. He had started in life as a *Protectionist*, who thought that English-grown and English-made articles ought to be protected from being undersold by things brought in from abroad. But he now repealed many duties which had been imposed in order to keep out foreign goods from competing with home produce. Thus he was changed

**Peel's
triumph in
1841**

by experience into becoming what is called a *free trader*.

4. If Peel believed in free trade at all, free trade in bread was more important than anything else. Yet the Corn Laws still remained as high as ever. With the object of helping British landlords and farmers, a heavy duty had been put on foreign corn. These Corn Laws made bread dear and caused much grumbling,

**The Anti-
Corn Law
Agitation**



SIR ROBERT PEEL

(From a Mezzotint after Sir Thomas Lawrence)

especially in the manufacturing towns, which cared little for British agriculture and a great deal for cheap food. The *Anti-Corn Law League* was formed to agitate against all taxes on bread. Its founders were

John Bright, an eloquent Quaker manufacturer from Rochdale, and *Richard Cobden*, a Manchester Calico-printer of wonderful earnestness and power of persuasion. The landlords declared that if the Corn Laws were repealed they would be ruined. But the League convinced many people that it was more important to give every man cheap bread than to keep up the artificial prosperity of a single class of the nation. Peel himself was more than half converted by it. Then came a terrible famine in Ireland which finally made Peel see that the Corn Laws had to go.

5. The Catholic Question and the Repeal Agitation had unsettled Ireland. But the real thing that kept Ireland discontented and unhappy was the poverty of the peasantry. There were more people in Ireland than the land would feed, and a bad system of land laws put the peasants quite at the mercy of their landlords. In a great part of Ireland the land was tilled by very small farmers, who paid such a huge rent that they had very little left to live on after satisfying the landlord. They were compelled therefore to feed on potatoes because they were cheap. Now a disease broke out which made potatoes unfit for human food. The result was that millions of Irishmen were plunged into fearful distress, and began to starve.

6. Peel did what he could to relieve this misery. He felt it was wrong to tax food when millions were starving. He therefore proposed to abolish the Corn Laws, and, though many of his followers became very angry, he was strong enough, with the help of the Whigs, to carry out his purpose. In 1846 Peel reduced the tax on corn to a nominal sum, so that henceforth grain for the people could be bought wherever it was cheapest. The landlords cried out that they were ruined, and a section of the Conservatives, called the

The Irish Famine

Abolition of the Corn Laws

Protectionists, was formed, which was bitterly hostile to Peel. It was led by *Benjamin Disraeli*, a clever and eccentric writer of novels, and a Jew by birth, whom Peel had offended. Before long the *Protectionists* joined with the Whigs and drove Peel from office. Slow to move as he was, stiff and narrow as he seemed to a man like Disraeli, Peel was one of the most clear-headed, honourable, and straightforward of the queen's prime ministers. Whenever he saw a thing was right, he declared for it. Though Peel died a few years later, his admirers long acted together under the name of *Peelites*. The most famous of them was *William Ewart Gladstone*, the son of a Liverpool merchant, who first held office in Peel's ministry.

7. The *Liberals*—as the Whigs were now generally called—reaped the advantages of the split between the *Protectionists* and the *Peelites*. From 1846 to 1852 a Liberal ministry, at whose head was *Lord John Russell*, remained in power. It had an easier task before it than the previous Whig administration. The repeal of the Corn Laws had brought prosperity to the ordinary workman, who became less discontented, as he was now winning higher wages and living on better food. One result of this was seen in the increasing weakness of the *Chartists*. In 1848 there were revolutions all over Europe. There was fighting in nearly every great city, and many Governments were overturned but in England, despite a big demonstration of the *Chartists*, things had passed off quietly.

**Collapse of
the Chartists
and Re-
pealers**

8. In a few years quarrels between Lord John Russell and *Lord Palmerston*, the most popular, and energetic of his followers, weakened the Liberal party. This gave the *Protectionists* under Lord Derby and Disraeli a chance of getting office in 1852. When once in power they saw that it was useless trying to bring back the

**The Coali-
tion of
1852**

Corn Laws, and therefore dropped their Protectionist views. But even this change of policy did not allow them to remain long in peace. In the opposition, the Liberals had patched up their quarrels, and had also drawn nearer to the Peelites. The result was that they drove Derby from office, and set up a *Coalition Ministry*, in which both Liberals and Peelites took part. But the new ministers did not work well together. The worst result of their lack of union was that England gradually drifted into war with Russia.

9. For a long time the growth of Russia had excited alarm. The Russians were now threatening to destroy



THE CRIMEAN WAR

the Turkish Empire, and most people in the West were anxious to uphold the Turks, so as to keep up what was called the Balance of Power. This was a great mistake, since it was quite impossible to maintain the Turkish power for long. The Turks were rude, cruel soldiers, splendid as fighters, but quite unteachable as rulers. They brutally misgoverned their Christian subjects, who constantly rose in revolt against them. Some of

The Crimean War

the Greeks had already managed to win their freedom. Now other Christian subjects tried to shake off the Turkish yoke, and looked to Russia for help. The statesmen of the West, in their natural alarm of the growth of Russia, decided to support the Turks. Fearing lest Russia should make herself mistress of the Black Sea and the Levant, England declared war against her in 1854. France was now ruled by *Napoleon III.*, nephew of the great Napoleon, who strove to follow his uncle's fashion of government, and was anxious to win military glory. At times he thought of fighting England, but he now joined with England against Russia, so that for the first time for many generations Englishmen and Frenchmen fought side by side.

10. The chief fighting in this war was in the peninsula called the *Crimea*, which juts out into the northern part of the Black Sea. The English and French now landed an army to destroy the strong fortress called *Sebastopol*.

**The Siege of
Sebastopol**

Winter came on, and the allied armies were badly mismanaged, and suffered severely from disease. It was now that Florence Nightingale was sent out with her small band of nurses, and did such good work in the hospitals for the sick and wounded soldiers that her influence has altered nursing all over the world. When there was actual fighting to be done British soldiers behaved splendidly. Thus at *Balaclava* the six hundred troopers of the light brigade of British cavalry charged a whole Russian army, strongly posted and protected by artillery, while at *Inkerman* a few regiments of British infantry resisted for many hours the attack of a great Russian force which had come upon them unawares in the midst of a dense November fog. But all through the war the generalship was bad, while the home Government showed deplorable incompetence. At last a great outcry was raised against the

coalition, which was driven from office. Palmerston was now made Prime Minister, and his energy soon put a new colour on the whole struggle. Sebastopol was captured, and in 1856 the Russians were glad to make peace.

11. In 1857 a trouble worse than the Crimean War shook the British Empire to its foundations. Ever since the days of Clive a large part of the army of the East India Company had consisted of Indian troops called *Sepoys*. Some carelessness in their treatment made them very discontented. Rumours sprang up that the English wished to destroy their religion and their race, and in 1857 they suddenly rose in mutiny, shooting their officers, and committing all sorts of horrors. Luckily, the revolt did not spread over all India, and some of the Sepoys and many of the Indian princes remained loyal. At last, after great efforts, the mutiny was put down. The British Parliament in 1858 passed an Act abolishing the East India Company. In England a Secretary of State with an advisory council took the place of the Board of Control, and in India the Governor-General became the Viceroy. Thus the control of India passed directly to a minister of the Crown and thus to Parliament, and these changes heralded a great administrative development in India. In 1877 the Queen was given the title of Empress of India.

12. Palmerston was the only British statesman who had won credit during the Crimean War. Until his death, nine years later, he remained the strongest force in politics, and, save for one brief interval, Prime Minister. He was an easy-going, good-humoured man, who cared nothing for reforms at home, and very little for party politics. But he had a great belief in his country and in the British Empire. He showed a fine

The Indian Mutiny

Palmerston's rule and death

spirit and high courage in the face of difficulties, and Britain owes much to his patriotism and sound common sense. Sometimes the methods by which he sought to uphold British interests gave just offence. Yet his general policy was on right lines, and he did good service to Europe as well as to England by reason of the sympathy he showed with nations struggling for their freedom. He did something to help the Italians, who were now gradually throwing off the rule of their many princes and building up a united Italian kingdom. He made the English and the French better friends than they had been for centuries. But he was bitterly hated by those who thought that under all circumstances England must keep at peace, even if peace meant some loss to Britain. The ardent reformers who sat in his cabinet bore his yoke very impatiently. Chief among these were the Peelites, now entirely united with the Liberal party, and more eager for change than the old-fashioned Whigs. Palmerston allowed Gladstone, the Peelite chief, to be his Chancellor of the Exchequer. Gladstone drew up brilliant free-trade budgets that showed him to be the real inheritor of the financial genius of his master Peel. But the Prime Minister looked with great mistrust on his enthusiasm. Palmerston was growing very old, but he loved power, and clung to it till his death in 1865. He shrewdly saw that with his retirement the reformers would win the upper hand. 'Gladstone,' he said, 'will soon have it all his own way. Whenever he gets my place we shall have strange doings.'

13. Lord John Russell was now made an earl and Prime Minister, while Gladstone took Palmerston's place as the real chief of the ministry. Gladstone now brought forward a new Reform Bill. But Palmerston's followers still held their master's view that enough had been done in the way of Parliamentary Reform by the Act

**The Second
Reform Act**

of 1832. In 1866 they joined with the Conservatives in defeating the measure and in turning out the Government. This Whig revolt against reform gave the Conservatives under Derby and Disraeli another chance of office. Disraeli had long been carefully watching the course of English affairs. He saw that the Conservatives had made the mistake of simply opposing everything, and was convinced that they could never win by such a policy. To the horror of all old Tories he now brought forward a Reform Bill of his own, which was successfully passed into law in 1867. By it all male householders got votes in the boroughs, and the county franchise was extended to all who paid £12 a year in rent. The smaller boroughs were deprived of separate representation, and an increased number of members given to the greater towns and more populous counties. The result of the Bill was that nearly all the workmen, who happened to live in the boroughs, had votes, and that the middle classes, who, since 1832, had had everything their own way, had no longer the power of electing the greater part of Parliament. Workmen and labourers who lived in the countryside still had no votes.

14. At the first general election held under the new system, the Liberals had a majority of 120. The Derby-Disraeli ministry at once came to an end, and Gladstone became Prime Minister. His views were very different from those which he had held in the days when he had been a follower of Peel. But he was very able, very much in earnest, wonderfully eloquent as a speaker, and of rare skill in ruling the House of Commons, and in appealing to the emotions of the new voters. He held power for six years, from 1868 to 1874, and every one of these years was marked by the passing of some great reform.

**The great
Gladstone
ministry**

15. Ireland had again become a source of trouble.

A few years before a new agitation had been set on foot by a secret society called the *Fenians*. The Fenians hated English rule, and aimed at setting up an independent Irish Republic. For several years they kept England and Ireland in alarm. Their activity called attention to the state of Ireland, and made Gladstone eager to do something to get rid of Irish discontent.

**Irish
troubles and
remedies**



WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE

(From Photo by London Stereoscopic Company)

With this object he deprived the Protestant Church in Ireland of much of its property, and broke off its connection with the state. This was called the *Disendowment and Disestablishment of the Irish Church*,

and was carried out in 1869. The Irish were largely Roman Catholics, and had long hated this Church as a sign of English supremacy. But they had many other grievances and remained as discontented as ever. Nor were they pleased when Gladstone passed an *Irish Land Act*, which strove to improve the condition of the Irish farmers. A new agitation arose for *Home Rule for Ireland*, and before long a large number of the Irish members of Parliament were pledged to obtain a measure for setting up a separate Parliament at Dublin, such as had existed in the days of Grattan. Gladstone was not yet prepared to meet this demand, so the Irish question remained as troublesome as ever.

16. Gladstone also undertook many other reforms. Among these was the reform of the army, where the curious plan of officers buying their commissions was ended, and a new system was set up by which the different regiments were recruited from a particular county or district. Another great improvement was the passing of the *Elementary Education Act of 1870* by which *School Boards* were set up, and every child given a chance of learning to read, write, and do arithmetic. But each change provoked a great deal of opposition, and some of the ministers showed want of tact and firmness.

17. Foreign politics also attracted much attention. There was a great war between France and Prussia in 1870 and 1871, in which the French were utterly beaten. The Emperor Napoleon III. was blamed by his subjects for causing the war and mismanaging the army. He was therefore deposed and a Republic set up in France, which has lasted ever since. The triumph of Prussia led the other German princes to recognise its king William as German Emperor, and to establish a new constitution for Germany, which

**Gladstone's
other
reforms**

**The Franco-
German
War**

thus at last became united, as Italy also became joined together in a single state. Germany and Italy had long been nations, and of late years the idea had grown up that people belonging to the same nation ought to be members of the same state. The strongest powers, such as England, and France, and Russia, owed their strength to being nations as well as states. With the growth of united Italy and united Germany, the national state became the rule all over western Europe.

18. The Gladstone government kept Great Britain out of the great struggle between the French and the Germans. Generally, however, it showed little firmness in dealing with its chief foreign difficulties, though it was sincerely eager for peace, and did good service by promoting arbitration instead of fighting as a means of settling disputes between different states.

**Gladstone's
foreign
policy**

19. In 1874 there were new elections which gave the Conservatives a majority for the first time since 1841. It was the moment of Disraeli's triumph. For nearly thirty years he had led the Conservatives, but they had always been in a minority, and, though he had three times been minister for a short space, he had never enjoyed real power. He now succeeded Gladstone, and for six years, 1874 to 1880, acted as head of a vigorous government. He said that the country had had enough of violent changes under Gladstone. He strove to carry on the daily government of the country in an efficient way, to bring in practical improvements in small matters, and to look more carefully after the interests of England abroad than, as he thought, the Gladstone ministry had done. But as time went on he had great trouble in the House of Commons with the Irish Home rulers. The Irish now found a shrewd, unscrupulous, but very able leader in *Charles Stewart Parnell*, a Protestant, who soon began to sway the Irish people

**The Disraeli
ministry
1874-1880**

as no man since O'Connell had done. The Home Rulers tried to make their influence felt in Parliament by making long speeches, which kept the house sitting up all night, and by obstructing in every way the course of business. In Ireland they started a *Land League*, which strove to make the tenants the owners of the farms that they cultivated.

20. The Eastern Question again gave trouble. After the Crimean War it had been hoped that the Turks would reform and govern their Christian subjects tolerably. But the Turk did not change, and once more there were revolts of ill-treated Christians, who as usual looked to Russia for help. A rising of the Bulgarians against the Turks was put down with atrocious cruelty. Europe made weak efforts to protect the subjects of the Sultan from his oppression, but nothing effective came of these attempts. At last, in 1877, the Russians went to war with the Turks. They met with a stubborn resistance, but, after much hard fighting, the sturdy Russian soldiers forced their way through the Balkan passes and were in full march on Constantinople. Disgust at the outrages wrought by the Turks in Bulgaria had been too strong in England to make it possible to help the Turks. But even those who wished to end Turkish misrule grew alarmed lest the Russians should become masters of Constantinople. Disraeli, who had now become *Earl of Beaconsfield*, sent a fleet to the coast of Turkey, and made ready for fighting Russia. But the danger was removed when a European conference met at Berlin, and drew up fairly satisfactory terms of peace. Bulgaria was freed from the Turkish yoke, and the Sultan was forced to promise to treat his subjects better. Beaconsfield boasted that he had given England 'peace with honour.' He had been accused of backing up the Turks, but there was little in the treaty that was favourable to

The Russo-Turkish War, and the Treaty of Berlin

them. Still it left the Sultan ruler of a considerable territory in Europe, and fresh wars and disturbances



THE EARL OF BEACONSFIELD
(From a Photograph by J. Hughes, 1876)

a few years later showed that the Eastern Question had not yet been settled.

21. Gladstone had withdrawn from public life after his defeat in 1874, but the atrocities wrought by the Turks in Bulgaria brought him out of retirement to denounce the 'unspeakable Turk' and Disraeli who seemed likely to make an alliance with him. Like the previous ministry, Beaconsfield's government had made many mistakes, and Gladstone's indignant eloquence was very effective against it. The result was seen in the general election of 1880, which gave the Liberals once more a majority.

**Gladstone
restored to
power**

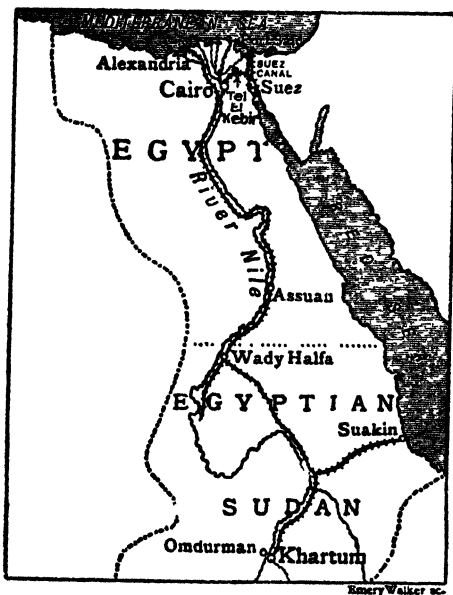
22. Beaconsfield gave up office and died a year later. He had outlived the follies of his early career, but there was always something rather fantastic and strange about him. He was not only a very able man, and a most acute party leader; he had an extraordinary knowledge of men, and a wonderful insight into the heart of some large questions. He did much towards promoting the greatness of the British Empire.

**Death of
Beaconsfield**

23. The second Gladstone government lasted from 1880 to 1885. It was much troubled by the uneasy outlook of foreign affairs. Perhaps its worst difficulties were in *Egypt* which up to a few years before had been ruled by a prince called the *Khedive*. Egypt had recently become very important to England since the *Suez Canal* had been cut to enable ships to go more quickly to India and the East than they could by the old route round the Cape of Good Hope. The canal had been built by a French company, though chiefly useful to the English. But the extravagant ways of the Khedive had got his country into debt, and had brought about such confusion that in Beaconsfield's days England and France interfered. They deposed the Khedive, and set up a joint control of Egypt which practically made the two Western powers the rulers of the country. But the

Egypt

Egyptians disliked the foreigners' rule, and rose in revolt. Moreover, there was a rising in the *Sudan*, the region of the Upper Nile, which had been a few years before conquered by the Khedive. This was led by a Mohammedan prophet called the *Mahdi*, who soon destroyed the Egyptian power throughout the country.



When this double crisis came, the French withdrew from Egypt and left the English to deal single-handed with the difficulty. Egypt itself was easily subdued. But the Sudan was altogether lost, except where a few Egyptian garrisons still held out.

24. The English could not leave these garrisons to their fate, and there was a danger lest the Mahdi's

power should extend to Egypt itself. To save the garrisons the government sent to the Sudan an enthusiastic and high-minded soldier named **Gordon's death at Khartum** Charles Gordon, who, after a wonderful career in China had been appointed in the Khedive's time ruler of the Sudan.

He was the only European who had any influence over the fierce Sudanese, but he soon saw that he could do nothing unless the government gave him troops to restore order and smash the Mahdi. But the ministers left him to his fate. He reached *Khartum*, the chief city of the Sudan, where the Mahdi soon closely besieged him. When it was too late, the government resolved to send an army to release him. But before the soldiers could complete their long journey up the Nile, Khartum had been captured and the heroic Gordon slain (1885). After this the Sudan was abandoned to the Mahdi, whose power soon declined.

25. Unsuccessful in Egypt, the ministry had great difficulties with the House of Commons, where the Irish Home Rulers, under Parnell's guidance, threatened to stop nearly all business by their policy of obstruction. In Ireland outrage was frequent, and, despite land reform, the peasantry were still suffering **Home Rule** greatly from poverty and famine. At last the troubles came to a head when some of the wild fanatics murdered *Lord Frederick Cavendish*, the Irish Secretary. Fresh measures of coercion were then passed through Parliament and the Home Rulers joined the Conservatives in bitter opposition to the Government. In 1885 their united efforts drove Gladstone from power.

26. Before he resigned Gladstone passed, by agreement with the Conservatives, the *Third Reform Bill* of 1884, by which the right of having a vote was given to every male householder in the counties, just as it

had been given to the householders in the boroughs in 1867. The lesser boroughs were abolished, and the country cut up into constituencies, very roughly equal in population, and each returning one member. By this act every man with a house of his own had a voice in settling the fortunes of his country.

**The Third
Reform Act**

27. The Conservatives now took office, but could not keep it long, and in 1886 Gladstone was Prime Minister for the third time. He now made an alliance with his former enemies, the Irish, and brought in a bill giving a separate Parliament to Ireland. But a large section of the Liberals refused to accept his new policy, and the Home Rule Bill was defeated in the House of Commons. A new general election was held in which the Conservatives made common cause with the Liberals who had voted against Home Rule. This new party was led by *Lord Hartington* (afterwards *Duke of Devonshire*) and *Joseph Chamberlain*, a very able Birmingham manufacturer. They took the name of *Liberal-Unionists*, and henceforth worked along with the Conservatives, whose leader, since Beaconsfield's death, had been the *Marquis of Salisbury*. The election gave a great majority to the *Unionist* party, and Salisbury became Prime Minister in 1886.

**Gladstone
declares for
Home Rule**

28. From 1886 to the queen's death in 1901 the Unionist party remained almost constantly in power. Its rule was only broken in the years 1892 to 1895, when the Home Rulers, who won a small majority at the general election in 1892, formed a fourth Gladstone administration. But the Home Rulers had too small a majority to be able to do very much, and Gladstone, already a very old man, gave up office in 1894, and died soon afterwards. Under *Lord Rosebery*, his successor, the Home Rulers were further

**The
Unionist
Govern-
ments, 1886-
1901**

weakened by quarrels among their leaders, and in 1895 were forced to dissolve Parliament. A new general election once more returned Lord Salisbury to power. In the ministry he now formed he gave many offices to the Liberal-Unionists, who had been contented to support his former government without taking part in it. This ministry lasted for the rest of the queen's reign. Its attention was mainly occupied by foreign affairs, and it was forced to wage wars in many parts of the world. In 1898 *Lord Kitchener* was sent to reconquer the Sudan, and British control and administration were established there. But the success of the English in Egypt provoked much jealousy in France, and there was at one time a real prospect of war between the two countries, which soon happily passed away.

29. One of the greatest things in Victoria's reign was the growth of the overseas dominions. After the American War of Independence, England adopted a change in its policy towards the colonies. Until then the colonial policy was of a selfish and short-sighted character. The British believed that the colonies existed only to serve the interests of the mother country and accordingly interfered in the internal affairs of the colonies. The lesson they learnt in America necessitated a change in policy. The new policy recognised the internal independence of the colonies and their right to work out their own destinies.

New Colonial Policy

After the loss of America under George III. Britain had few colonies left, except the *West Indies* and *French Canada*. Early in the nineteenth century the *West Indies* were very prosperous, but their prosperity fell away after slavery was abolished, and free trade drove their sugar out of the English market. Canada, however, grew immensely. Upper or English

The Growth of the British Overseas Dominions

Canada was soon settled and began to outgrow French or Lower Canada. For a long time there were troubles, quarrels between the French and English, and political disputes and even armed rebellion. At last *Lord Durham* was sent to make a report, and he recommended that the government should be carried on in accordance with 'those principles which have been found perfectly efficacious in Great Britain.' That is to say he recommended Responsible Government, the governor was to choose as prime minister a man who would have support in Parliament, and then act towards him as a constitutional sovereign, and take his advice. This suggestion was carried out, and Canada gradually developed that system of self-government within the Empire which is now known as Dominion Status. It was a gradual process which took about ninety years to work out fully. The federation of the American colonies in 1867 which brought the *Dominion of Canada* into being helped by providing a federal state in which the experiment could work out.

**Dominion of
Canada**

During the nineteenth century a new Britain was arising in Australia. The first settlements were mere convict stations, but the colonies gradually became great through gold discoveries and wool growing. Australia is so vast a country that many different colonies were set up in it, the most important being *New South Wales* whose capital is Sydney, and *Victoria*, whose chief city is Melbourne. Each of these became self-governing and independent colonies, with very little connection with each other. However, as they grew greater they began to realise the advantages of having some union among themselves. There were many difficulties in the way, but these were successfully overcome. At last, in 1901, the different Australian dominions were happily joined together in the *Commonwealth of*

**Common-
wealth of
Australia**

Australia, though, as in the case of Canada, each region continued to manage its own local affairs.

Many hundred miles away from Australia lie the great islands of *New Zealand*. These were first settled in 1839 and received a parliamentary constitution in 1853. At one time they were divided into nine provincial councils.

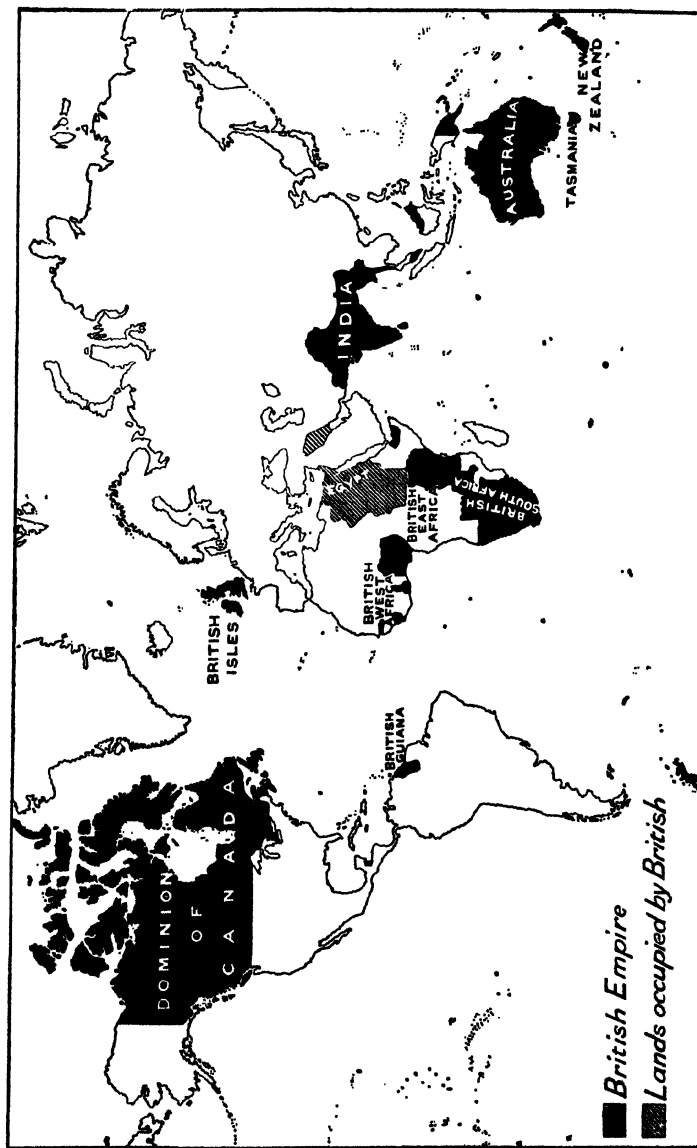
**New
Zealand**

But in 1875 these were abolished and now they have only one Parliament.

30. A fresh extension of the empire has arisen in South Africa. The first European settlements round the Cape of Good Hope were made by the Dutch. These were conquered by Britain in Napoleon's time, and remained in her possession after the peace. Before long English settlers made their homes there, but they were outnumbered by the old Dutch farmers, or *Boers*, and did not get on well with them. The whole history of South Africa has been full of disputes between the British and Dutch, and the result has been to retard considerably its prosperity. At last some of the Boers fled from English rule into the interior, where they set up two republics, the *Transvaal* and the *Orange River Free State*, which were long suffered to remain independent. In 1877, however, the Transvaal was conquered by the British but the Boers soon rose in revolt, and after 1881 were again allowed to govern themselves. Soon after this, rich mines of diamonds and gold were discovered in the Transvaal. The rush for wealth now brought many British settlers to the Transvaal, and fresh quarrels arose between the eager and restless newcomers and the slow-moving and old-fashioned Dutch farmers. The Free State made common cause with the Transvaal, and in 1899 war broke out between Britain and the two Boer republics. The British were badly

Boer war

led, and at first the Boers, who were splendid soldiers, won many victories over them. However,



WALKER & COCHRELL, LTD.

THE WORLD SHOWING THE BRITISH EMPIRE

very large forces, commanded by Lord Roberts, were poured into South Africa. The tide of the war now slowly turned and British ascendancy was established over South Africa.

In 1897 the *Diamond Jubilee* or the sixtieth year of Victoria's reign was celebrated throughout the British Empire. She died on January 22, 1901, full of years and honour. Her reign was the longest in all English history. She was succeeded by her son, as Edward VII.

Diamond Jubilee

ENGLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

31. Since the Napoleonic Wars more changes have been brought about than perhaps in any other period of British history, the seventy years that have elapsed between the establishment of the direct supremacy of Queen Victoria and the end of the great war. Commerce and industry have been opened up; health has been improved; the land protected from the periodic scourge of famine; public order established, and a beginning made towards self-government. Much still remains to be done, but real progress has already been made. The response of India has corresponded to the effort, and in the great crisis of the German War India has vied with the self-governing dominions in her contribution to imperial defence.

Science and material progress since the Napoleonic Wars

Quite recently a further extension of these ideas has given us *wireless telegraphy* and even *wireless telephony*, while broadcast entertainment and news are now an everyday affair. At the beginning of the nineteenth century railways were being discussed, and they soon began to make journeys on land easier; and while the poor man, when Victoria was young, could only travel by one slow train in the day and that in open trucks exposed to the weather, he could under George V. make his journeys in comfortable expresses

at convenient hours, while the more luxurious traveller could, if he liked, often eat his dinner or go to bed for the night during his journey. Fast steamships now carry commerce to the remotest parts of the world, and allow men to make voyages at about the same rate of speed as their great-grandfathers in Victoria's early years could travel by rail. Under Victoria the *bicycle* brought back traffic to the highways. Under Edward VII. the *motor car* has rivalled the railway train in speed. Under George V. the *aeroplane* has enabled man to navigate the air with less risk than he goes under the sea. Air-mails between England and India carry letters at a rate our grandfathers would not have believed possible. The motor bus is now found everywhere and opens up countries which were not quite accessible before. In surgery the discovery of antiseptic methods and of anæsthetics has saved untold misery and thousands of lives. In everyday life, *gas* and then *electricity* have given us new ways of lighting our houses, and of transmitting power from place to place. The *cinematograph* amuses our leisure, while the *gramophone* or *loud speaker* reproduces music or the human voice.

32. Both in Britain, and in the Empire there has been progress in things deeper than material prosperity. The beginning of the nineteenth century was marked by a reawakening in literature **Literature** which had its parallel in the social and political spheres. The *Romantic* movement, which reached its climax in the vivid historical novels of *Sir Waller Scott*, and the poems of *Byron*, who died fighting for the Greek independence in 1824 was a reaction from the formalism of the eighteenth century. More spiritually beautiful than *Byron's* verse is that of *Keats*, who died of consumption at the age of 26, and of *Shelley* whose lyrics are among the loveliest in the English language. In the novel the influence of the Romantic movement is

still to be seen in the writings of *Charlotte Bronte* and her sisters, but the novels of *Thackeray*, a master of style and satire, mark the beginning of realism in English fiction, while *Dickens'* panoramas of mid-Victorian life portrayed with humour and sympathy *all sorts and conditions of men*. In poetry *Lord Tennyson*, the Poet Laureate from 1850 to 1892, mirrored in sweet numbers the contented prosperity of Victorian England, while *Robert Browning's* more virile, though at times less poetical, verse echoed the intellectual courage and curiosity, which *Darwin* and *Huxley* represented in the realms of science. The last ten years of the century saw the growth of a somewhat decadent taste, of which *Oscar Wilde* was the chief exponent. Though poetry languished until the *Georgian* revival in the years immediately preceding the Great War, the prose tradition continued strongly, through the sophisticated brilliance of *Meredith*, and the vigorous irony of *Thomas Hardy*, until the realistic writing of *H. G. Wells* and *Arnold Bennett*, and the social dramas of *Galsworthy* and *Bernard Shaw* marked the beginnings of a new age.

33. But what was in some ways best of all was that there has been a steady improvement in the condition of the mass of the people. In Britain and the Dominions alike wages have risen and men's lives have become easier and more comfortable. In the early years of Victoria's reign many workmen could hardly get enough bread to eat. But their sons and grandsons have won by their own efforts a stronger and better position. By forming *trades-unions*, or combinations among themselves, workmen have found out the means of bargaining on equal terms with their employers, and thus obtaining the wages to which they are justly entitled. Four Reform Bills have given them the control of the destinies of the empire, and all recent British history has shown

Social Reforms

that those destinies are safe in their hands. Education has given them better opportunities of using their faculties, and is becoming open not only to the rich or a few privileged individuals, but to nearly every boy or girl who has brains enough to use his chances.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the condition of the country at the time of the accession of Victoria? Who were the Chartists? What were their demands? What demands of theirs have since been granted?

2. What do you understand by the terms (i) Protectionist and (ii) Free trader? What were the Corn Laws? When were they passed? Why did Peel repeal them? What part did the Anti-Corn Law League play in getting them repealed?

3. What were the designs of Russia on Turkey about 1850? Why did England take part in the war that followed? How did the war come to a close?

4. To which party did Palmerston belong? Tell what you know about his character and policy.

5. Who had the Second Reform Act passed? Mention the provisions of the Act and point out its results.

6. What was the discontent of the Irish due to during the days of Gladstone? What attempts did he make to remove them? What were his other reforms?

7. Which political party did Disraeli lead? In what respects did he differ from Gladstone? What part did he play in the Russo-Turkish war?

8. Why did England interfere in the affairs of Egypt during the ministry of Beaconsfield? Why was Charles Gordon sent there? Tell in a few lines what he did there.

9. What did Gladstone do to give political power to every male householder? How did he try to remove finally the Irish discontent? Did he succeed in his attempt?

10. Why did the West Indies lose their importance at the end of the 19th century? What do you understand by the terms 'Responsible Government', 'Federation' and 'Dominion Status'? What form of Government was established finally in Canada and Australia?

11. What difference do you notice in the Colonial policy of Britain in the 18th and in the 19th centuries? Illustrate your answer with suitable instances.

12. Tell how the Cape of Good Hope was got by Britain. What were the Boer and English settlements in South Africa at the close of the 19th century? What were the wars between the Boers and the English in the years 1877 and 1899 due to? How did the latter war come to a close? What form of Government prevails in South Africa at present?

13. Mention the names of a few famous poets and prose writers that flourished during the days of Victoria.

14. What is meant by a 'Jubilee' celebration? In what year was the Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria celebrated?

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE HOUSE OF WINDSOR

Queen Victoria
Edward VII, 1901-1910
George V, 1910-1936
Edward VIII, 1936 (Jan.—Dec.)
George VI, 1936—

BOOK VIII

THE HOUSE OF WINDSOR

CHAPTER XXXIX

Edward VII., 1901-1910
(Married Alexandra of Denmark)

Principal Dates :

- 1901. Accession of Edward VII.
- 1902. End of the Boer War.
- 1902-1905. Balfour Ministry.
- 1906-1908. Campbell-Bannerman Ministry.
- 1908-1910. Asquith Ministry.
- 1909. Budget rejected by House of Lords.
- 1910. Federation of South Africa. Death of Edward VII.

1. Edward VII. was nearly sixty when he became king. His father, Prince Albert, had died when he was quite a young man, and for nearly forty years he had helped his mother, **Character of Edward VII.** Queen Victoria, by going about the country to act on her behalf. He had been a great traveller and knew every part of the empire. Hitherto he had taken little part in politics. He was shrewd, kindly, easy-going, tactful, and open-minded. He took his position as a constitutional king very seriously, and, though very careful to keep to himself his views about party politics, he made his influence felt in many different ways. He travelled about Europe, visiting kings and presidents, and welcomed them to England when they in their turn paid visits to him. He worked hard and successfully to make England

more friendly with foreign countries, and was the



EDWARD VII.

Photo W and D Downey

57, Ebury Street, S W

better able to do this, since a large number of foreign rulers were closely akin to him or to his wife, Queen

Alexandra. He did so much to keep the world at peace that before his death men called him Edward the Peacemaker. Besides the old royal titles he took the new one of 'King of the British Dominions beyond the seas.'

2. The first important event of the new reign was the conclusion of the Boer War. Before the queen died, Lord Roberts had taken Bloemfontein and Pretoria, the capitals of the two Boer states, and had broken up the chief Boer armies. Nevertheless, the Boers still kept on fighting. Lord Roberts had now gone home, and Lord Kitchener became the chief English general. He skilfully conquered the country bit by bit, and gradually compelled the Boers to surrender. At last, the Boers saw that it was useless to resist any longer, and in 1902 they agreed to end the war. Thus the Boer republics became subject to the British Crown.

End of Boer War

3. The restoration of peace did not end the troubles of South Africa. Trade had been ruined by the war, and it was difficult to obtain enough labour for the mines of the Transvaal. It was not easy for the English and Dutch, so recently engaged in fighting each other, to live side by side. Gradually, however, the state of things improved. In 1906 both the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony were allowed to govern themselves as freely as any other British colony. In 1910, the two old Boer states were joined together with Cape Colony and the other British lands in South Africa, in a federal government after the fashion of British North America and Australia. It was a striking proof that the old feuds were being forgotten when Louis Botha, who had been the chief general of the Boer armies during the war, became the first Prime Minister of the Transvaal, and then, after federation, the first Prime Minister of United South Africa.

The Federation of South Africa

4. During the first half of Edward VII.'s reign the Unionists were the strongest party in Parliament and still governed the country. Lord Salisbury, who had been Prime Minister since 1895, resigned in 1902, and died soon afterwards. His successor was his nephew, Arthur J. Balfour, who remained in office until 1905. During these years the ministers had many difficulties to face, and gradually lost their favour with the people. Perhaps their best work was in improving the relations of Britain with foreign countries. They ended many long-standing disputes with France, and persuaded the French to recognise the British occupation of Egypt. Gradually a friendship between the two countries took the place of the old attitude of coolness and suspicion. Ministers had a difficult part to play when war broke out between Japan and Russia in the Far East. English sympathy was with Japan but she remained neutral. The Japanese defeated the Russians both by sea and land, and forced them to make a peace which gave Japan all she asked for.

5. The ministers now began to disagree among each other. Joseph Chamberlain, the Colonial Secretary, declared that free trade was working badly. He therefore upheld *Tariff Reform*, and urged that a tax, or duty, should be put upon manufactured goods sent from foreign countries into Britain. He hoped by this to help British manufacturers, many of whom, he said, were losing trade in the home market because foreigners were offering for sale in England goods similar to theirs at a cheaper rate. Chamberlain was still more anxious to give the dominions overseas advantages over foreigners in trading with England. Thus he wished to allow the corn of Canada, and the meat and wool of Australia to come into the country more cheaply than similar commodities from foreign lands,

The Salisbury and Balfour ministries

Chamberlain and Tariff Reform

hoping that in return the colonies would put lower taxes on British manufactures than those of other countries. He called this *colonial preference*, and believed that it would be the means of binding the different parts of the British empire more closely together. He found little active support among the ministers, and strong opposition from the Liberals. At last he resigned his post, and threw all his energies into preaching *tariff reform* and *colonial preference* in the country. He gradually won over most of the Unionists, including the Prime Minister. The strongest free-traders among the Conservative ministers gave up their posts, but the ministry was now thoroughly disunited and disheartened. At last, in 1905, Balfour resigned, and the Liberals came back to office.

6. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman now became Prime Minister, and among his colleagues were H. H. Asquith as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the eloquent Welsh leader, David Lloyd George. As the majority in the House of Commons was still Conservative, Parliament was dissolved, and a new general election held early in 1906. The Liberals gained an overwhelming victory. The elections made it clear that the last government was thoroughly mistrusted, and that everywhere, except in Birmingham and its neighbourhood, the cause of Tariff Reform had made little way. In the new House of Commons there were five hundred supporters of the government, and only one hundred and fifty Unionists. The Liberals, therefore, remained in office for the rest of the King's reign. In 1908 Campbell-Bannerman was compelled to resign by ill-health, and soon afterwards died. Asquith became Prime Minister in his stead, and gave the Chancellorship of the Exchequer to Lloyd George.

**The Camp-
bell-Banner-
man and
Asquith
ministries**

7. In foreign affairs the new ministers took up a very similar line to their predecessors. While keeping up

the friendship with France, they managed also to bring about better relations with Russia and Germany, King Edward giving his ministers very valuable assistance in this matter. In colonial affairs we have seen already how they gave free institutions to the Boer colonies, and brought about the union of South Africa. In home legislation they were less successful, and failed to carry all their chief proposals through the House of Commons. Some of the most important of their bills which the Commons passed, were, however, thrown out by the House of Lords, where the Conservatives had an even more overwhelming majority than the Liberals in the House of Commons. At last, in 1909, the House of Lords rejected the budget, or plan of taxation for the next year, proposed by Lloyd George, whose scheme was to put much heavier taxes on very rich people than they had previously paid. To throw out a budget was an unheard of thing for the Lords to do, since it had long been held that the business of taxation belonged to the Commons only. However, the Lords did not claim to destroy the budget altogether, but said that they would not pass it until the country had been asked whether it approved of it or not.

8. To settle the dispute between the Lords and the Liberals, a general election was held early in 1910.

**The General
Election of
1910 and
the Veto
Resolutions**

The Liberals said that they could not go on governing the country if the House of Lords stopped all their proposals. They therefore declared that the Lords' control over finance must be absolutely ended, and their power of stopping new laws greatly reduced. The chief thing, therefore, that the electors had to decide was whether the ministers or the Lords were right. The difficulty was that there were many other questions to be decided besides that of the House of Lords. Tariff Reform was now strongly upheld by

the Conservatives, but Chamberlain's ill-health and absence from politics was a great loss to them. The Liberals again won the day, though they lost many seats and had to depend for their majority on the support of the Irish party, whose real object was Home Rule, and the new Labour party, whose chief object was to secure social reform. All sections of the majority were united against the Lords, so that, when the new Parliament met, the Liberals were able to force the Lords to accept their budget, and also to pass resolutions through the Commons called the *Veto Resolutions*. By these the Commons declared that the House of Lords should not be allowed to interfere in matters of taxation like the budget, and that the Lords' power to stop laws should be so limited that any measure desired by the Commons might become law, despite the peers, after two or three years. These proposals raised the whole question whether Parliament should consist of two Houses or one. Before, however, the dispute had gone very far, the sudden death of King Edward put an end to the fierce struggle of parties.

QUESTIONS

1. Why was Edward VII. called the Peacemaker?
2. What effect had the Boer War on South Africa? What was the form of Government finally established in British South Africa? Name the states that joined together.
3. Who were the leaders of the Unionist Party? What was their foreign policy?
4. To which party did Joseph Chamberlain belong? How did he propose to encourage British manufactures? What is meant by Preferential Tariffs?
5. What were the views of the Liberal Ministry regarding foreign and colonial affairs? What was the dispute between the Liberals and the Lords?
6. Tell what you know of the struggle between the Lords and the Commons.

CHAPTER XL

George V., 1910-1936

(Married Mary of Teck)

Principal Dates :

- 1910. Accession of George V.
- 1911. The Parliament Act.
- 1914-1918. The War against Germany.
- 1910-1915. Asquith Ministry.
- 1916-1918. Lloyd George Coalition Ministry.
- 1918. Parliamentary Reform Act.

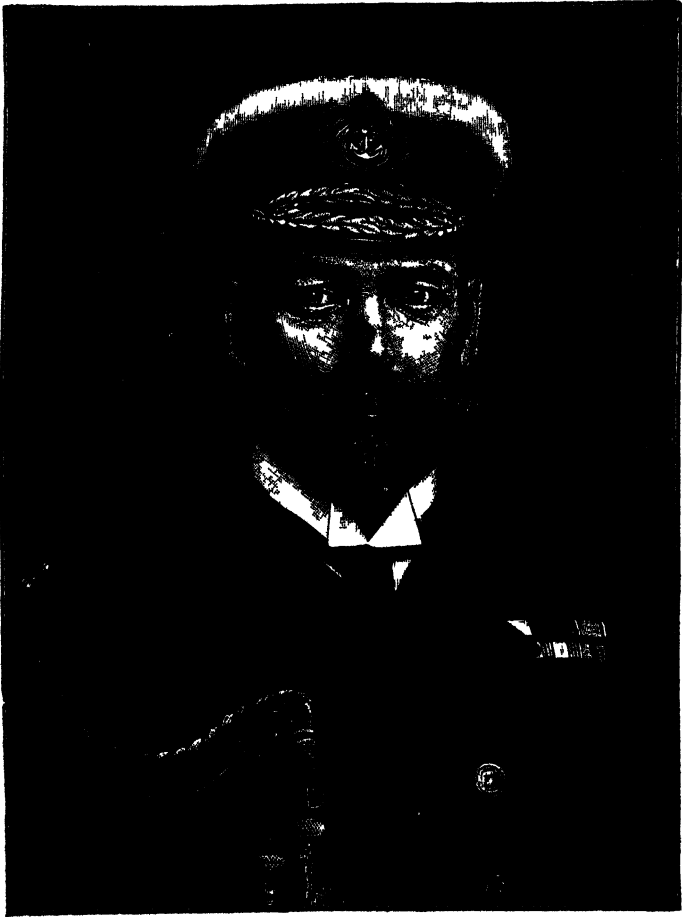
1. George V. was the second and only surviving son of Edward VII. and was forty-five years old when he became king. He had been educated as a sailor, but gave up the navy when his brother's death made him heir to the throne. He married his cousin, Princess Mary of Teck. It was the first time for over three hundred years that both king and queen had been born in England. In 1917 the king repudiated for himself and his kinsfolk all foreign titles and declared that his family was to be styled the House of Windsor.

2. When George became king, the Lords and Commons were still engaged in fierce quarrels with each other. An attempt was made to patch up a compromise in the dispute as to the powers of the House of Lords, but it broke down. Thereupon the Asquith government dissolved Parliament, after it had only been a few months in existence. But the new House of Commons, elected in December, 1910, contained exactly the same number of members of each party as the old

**George V.
and the
House of
Windsor**

**The second
general
election of
1910**

one. There were as many Conservatives as Liberals



KING GEORGE V.

returned, so that they balanced each other. The

ministers, therefore, again depended for their majority on the supports of the Irish Home Rulers and the Labour members.

3. The government was still able to carry its measures through the Commons, and send them up to the Lords. Four of these proposals attracted much attention. One was the *Parliament Bill* which denied to the Lords the power to reject or alter a money bill, and declared that any other bill, if passed by the Commons, during three successive years, was to become law at the end of that period, whether the Lords accepted it or threw it out. It also reduced to five years the duration of a parliament. Another was a *National Insurance Bill* which gave all workers support from the State when they were ill or out of work. A third was a bill for disestablishing and disendowing the Church in Wales, and the fourth was a new bill for *Home Rule for Ireland*. Of these four bills the Lords only accepted the *Parliament Bill* and the *National Insurance Bill* which thus became law at once. They rejected both the Welsh Bill and the Irish Bill. But the Commons sent up these bills to them both the second and the third time. According to the Parliament Act, both should have become law by the end of 1914 despite the Lords' opposition.

4. The prospect of Home Rule created great alarm among most of the Irish Protestants, and especially among those in Eastern Ulster where the Protestants were in a majority. The Ulstermen said that Parliament had no right to bring them under the government of the rest of Ireland, for it meant their being ruled by men with whom they had no sympathy or agreement. They bound themselves together by a solemn covenant to resist Home Rule by force, and drilled and armed a large number of Ulster Volunteers to execute the

**The Parlia-
ment and the
Insurance
Acts**

**The Re-
sistance to
Home Rule**

threat. The Nationalists, following their example, set up a host of National Volunteers to enforce Home Rule. Thus Ireland was divided into two armed camps, each getting ready to fight the other.

5. The only way out seemed to be to give Home Rule to the part of Ireland where the majority wished for it and to exclude from its operation the districts where opinion was largely against it. But the Irish Nationalists declared that Ireland must be treated as a single whole, and that Eastern Ulster must be forced to fall in with the desires of the majority of Irishmen. They, therefore, insisted on the government carrying the Home Rule Bill through the Commons for the third time in 1914, and opposed the *Amending Bill* in which Asquith proposed to allow any counties, where the majority voted against Home Rule, to be excluded from its operation. Even after the outbreak of the Great War, the Home Rule Bill was still pressed on, but a *Suspensory Act* held up its operation and also that of the Welsh Bill until the war had come to an end. The Amending Bill was dropped altogether.

**The Amend-
ing Bill and
the Sus-
pensory Act**

6. Before this stage was reached, a great trouble burst upon the whole world which made disputes about Irish Home Rule and Welsh disestablishment seem trivial. This was the outbreak of war with Germany on August 4, 1914. The Great War was the last and severest of a long series of wars on the continent of Europe in which France and Germany were the chief rivals. Napoleon had defeated the separate German states and humbled them. Since then Germany had become a strong power united under Prussia and in 1870-1 had defeated France and forced terms of peace on her, including the cession of territory which left a bitter feeling among all Frenchmen and a desire for revenge. Meanwhile Germany had developed very rapidly. She

**Causes of
the Great
War**

had won a great share in the world's carrying trade, had set up a great navy, had established colonies and had become a manufacturing country. At the same time she continued to be the chief military power and by making friends with Austria and Italy had set up a *Triple Alliance* through which she hoped to control Europe. This union of the central powers was the more effective since Germany dexterously kept alive the old jealousies which had divided Britain, France and Russia. The Triple Alliance appeared so menacing that Russia and France formed a *Dual Alliance* against it. Both alliances armed themselves and prepared for a possible war. But Britain, alone of the great powers, tried to keep out of the fetters of the two rival leagues. Gradually, however, she found herself compelled to show her strong sympathy with the Dual Alliance and to settle her old disputes with the French and Russians. Yet Britain still hoped to live on friendly terms with Germany and made no serious attempt to get ready an adequate army to defend her position. Time after time Europe seemed on the verge of war, but matters were somehow smoothed over, and most men hoped that the threatened fires would never break out. At last new troubles arose which showed that the armed peace of the West was not likely to last much longer.

7. Germany became more and more envious of the commercial and colonial greatness of Britain. She strove hard to set herself up as her rival in trade and on the sea. As a step towards this she made close friends with Turkey where in 1909 a revolution had established in power a party, called the *Young Turks*, which professed to have sympathy with western ways and was glad to have the support of Germany. With Turkish help Germany hoped to make herself mistress of the Near East, and built railways which might

**The Balkan
League and
the Eastern
ambitions of
Germany**

carry her armies to India and Egypt. But the Young Turks misgoverned their Christian subjects as badly as the Sultan had done. At last the people in the parts of the Balkan lands still ruled by the Turks rose up in revolt against her oppressors. In 1912 a *Balkan League* was formed by the Christian states that had gradually thrown off the Turkish yoke. The League came to the rescue of their brethren still under Turkish rule and succeeded in driving the Turks out of all their remaining possessions in Europe, except a small district round Constantinople. This was very displeasing to Germany and Austria, who were the more annoyed since their ally Italy had also gone to war against Turkey and had further reduced her power. At the same time Germany sought to drive the French out of Morocco. She gave up this attempt when Britain threatened to come to the help of the French, but her failures both in the East and the West, convinced her that she could only obtain her way by running the risk of a European war.

8. The situation was extremely dangerous. All the continental nations were armed to the teeth, and living in mutual fear and hate of each other. It only needed a petty quarrel to start a general war. Such a quarrel came in June 1914, when the heir to the Austrian throne was murdered by a Serbian fanatic, and Austria accused Serbia of instigating the crime. This Serbia indignantly denied, but the Austrians refused to believe them.

**The out-
break of
the Great
War**

Now the Serbs were closely allied with Russia, and the Austrians hated them since a great many of the Slavonic subjects of Austria wished to be joined with Serbia in a single Slavonic kingdom. So the Austrians were glad of a chance of humbling the Serbians, and promptly sent them an ultimatum making impossible demands upon them. Russia got ready to aid

Serbia, whereupon Germany ordered Russia to cease her military preparations under threat of immediate war. On Russia's refusal, Germany and Austria went to war against her. This attack compelled France to go to the help of Russia. Thus a general European war broke out. A few days later Germany marched her troops through Belgium as the easiest way of reaching France. She disregarded the protests of the Belgians and was careless of the promise which Prussia, like the other powers, had entered upon, always to treat Belgium as a neutral state. Britain strongly objected to this, but was told that the treaty which guaranteed Belgian neutrality was but a scrap of paper, and that Germany intended to do anything that made it easier for her to win a rapid victory. Thereupon, on 4th August, Britain joined France and Russia in resisting the aggression of the Central Powers.

9. The German plan of campaign was to crush France quickly and then conquer Russia at her leisure.

The Battle of the Marne At first nearly everything went as Germany wished. Belgium was easily overrun and France invaded from the north. The little British force of 150,000 men, under General French, joined the French, but the Germans came on in such numbers and with so many guns that they drove the French and English before them and advanced beyond the River Marne to within 40 miles of Paris. Then a new French army fell upon the German right, while the troops that had been driven in retreat made a wonderful rally. After a long fierce fight called the *Battle of the Marne* (September), the Germans in their turn were compelled to give way. Before long, however, they dug themselves into strong positions and stayed the enemies' advance.

10. The character of the war then changed. The Germans had failed to win a speedy decision, but the

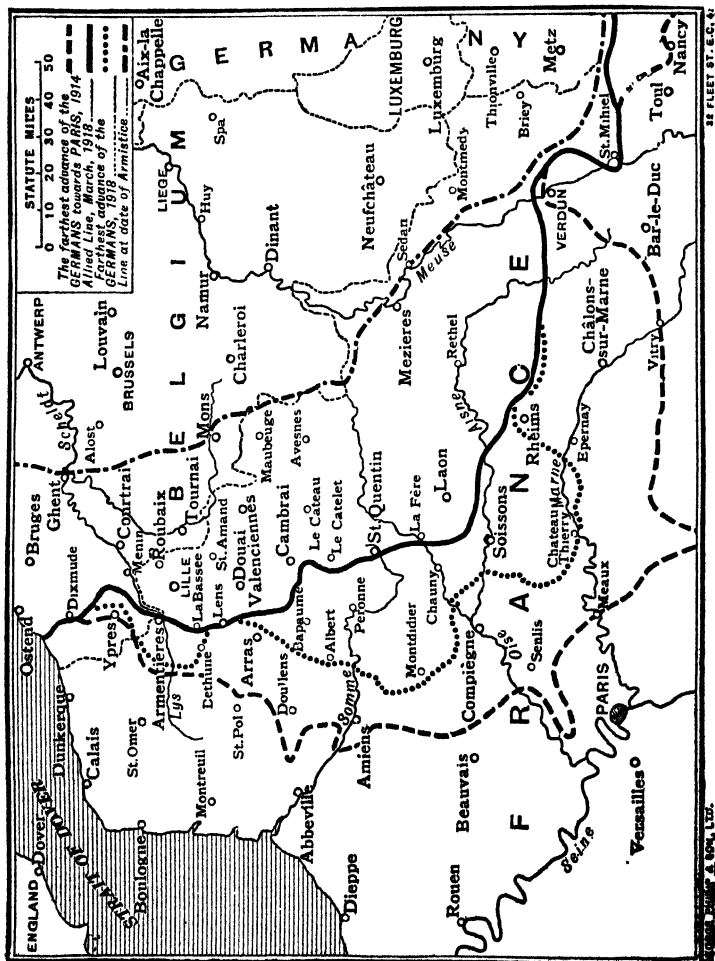
allies had not been strong enough to prevent them occupying nearly all Belgium and a great part of Northern France. But the war of rapid movement was now succeeded by a war of trenches in which each side stood on the defensive against the other. A long line of earthworks soon stretched from the North Sea to the Swiss frontier, and vast armies, millions strong, strove, though to little purpose, to find the weak places in their enemies' position. This state of things went on for three years. Sometimes the Germans, sometimes the allies gained the advantage; but each advance was won at enormous cost and did little to settle the question as to which side would prevail in the end. As years went on, it seemed as if things would result in a drawn battle. But the long struggle imposed the severest strain on both sides. There was, then, a chance of the less resolute party collapsing altogether.

The trench warfare in the West

11. There was equal activity and more changes of fortune in other fields of war. On the eastern front of the Central Powers the fortunes of war swayed violently from side to side. The Russians pushed their troops deep into the heart of Austria, but Germany, which had easily withstood Russian invasion, came to the help of her distressed ally. Russia had then to face invasion, and soon the long Austro-German line, running from the Baltic to the frontiers of Rumania, moved steadily eastwards. But treachery and incompetence had undermined the power of Russia, and the weak Tsar, Nicholas II., was quite unable to set matters straight. In 1917 he was driven from his throne and a Russian republic set up. This revolution only made matters worse, for power soon fell into the hands of blood-thirsty fanatics called *Bolsheviks*, who misruled the country, threw over her allies, and concluded a shameful peace with Germany and Austria. The result of

The war on the Russian front

this was that the eastern armies of the Central Powers



were able to come to the help of their forces in France and Belgium.

12. Turkey soon declared herself on the side of the Central Powers, who hoped to gain through her dominions access to Egypt and British India. To avert this danger an allied force landed, in 1915, on the shores of the *Dardanelles*. The troops showed magnificent courage, but their numbers were insufficient and the expedition was badly directed. After nine months of heroic struggle, the army was safely withdrawn. Another force sent up the Persian Gulf to invade Mesopotamia, made good progress at first, but early in 1916 its advanced sections were taken prisoners by the *Turks* at *Kut-el-Amara*. Things were made worse in the East by Bulgaria joining with Austria in conquering Serbia. The King of Greece, a brother-in-law of the German Emperor, wanted to join his kinsman's side, but a revolution drove him from power. Before this a British and French force had occupied Salonica, the chief port of Macedonia, now a part of Greece. For a long time it was unable to do anything effective to punish Bulgaria or rescue Serbia. Greece, Rumania, and Italy declared for the allies. But it was long before the Greeks could prepare their armies, and Rumania was, after the Russian collapse, easily overrun by the Germans. Italy's declaration of war against Germany in 1916 was a clear gain. The Italian attack soon occupied the Austrian armies, and prevented them being of any use to the Germans in West.

The war in
the south-
east and in
Asia

13. There was a struggle on the seas even more vital to England than the land campaigns. At first the Germans won some successes on the ocean, raided the English coast, destroyed merchant ships, and cut to pieces a weak British squadron off Chile. But before long British naval supremacy was decisively asserted. After Admiral Jellicoe's victory off *Jutland* in 1916, the German fleet was afraid to leave its harbours, and the war between

The war
at sea

great battleships was at an end. As a result of this, the ocean was free to the transports which carried the allied armies all over the world, and the German colonies in Africa, Asia, and the Pacific were gradually conquered.

14. A worse trial to British naval supremacy now ensued from the German use of the submarine and the mine. These new weapons of war made it impossible for Britain to blockade the German ports after the old fashion, and exposed every ship sailing on the ocean to the danger of being blown up by unseen enemies, who evaded the British navy by navigating under the water. At one time there was a serious danger of the British islands being starved out by reason of the large number of merchant ships destroyed by German submarines. Neutral as well as enemy ships were torpedoed at sight, and thousands of passengers and peaceful sailors were done to death by this new and ferocious method of warfare. This was part of the deliberate German policy of ruthlessness by which she believed she would terrorize the world into submission. But such misdeeds, though adding immensely to the sum of human misery, did not secure victory for the Germans. The allies effectively answered them by stopping all the sea-borne trade of their enemies. Moreover they gradually devised means of protection which made the submarine war very dangerous to the German sailors engaged in it. Disgust at German methods stiffened the resistance of the allies and angered the neutral powers which suffered by it. The chief of these was the United States of America. Finding remonstrances against the German methods useless, the American President, Woodrow Wilson, at last took the strong step of declaring war against the Central Powers.

15. One reason why the war lasted so long was that

Germany was ready, while Britain was not. Even France had not expected war to come at that moment; but France had a great national army that did not take very long to put out its full strength. Britain had the largest navy in the world, but only a very small army to begin with, and the United States had practically no army at all. Nothing is so wonderful in all the war as the way in which the two great English-speaking countries set to work to build up vast national armies, so that they could take an equal share with the French and Italians in defending their liberties from the Germans. The result was that the war came to be fought on a scale larger than that of any previous war. The armies numbered many millions of soldiers. Britain and her dominions alone raised more than six million troops, including large contingents which came from Canada, Australia, and the other self-governing dominions. A great part was also played by the soldiers of India, especially in the campaigns against the Turks. Within less than two years from their joining the war, the United States sent nearly two millions of men to Europe.

**The mighty
efforts of
Britain and
her Allies**

16. It was very gradually that these new forces were available. On the British side everything had to be done from the beginning and events showed that the British system of government was but ill-adapted to face the difficulties created by a state of universal warfare. The Asquith ministry did its best, and called on Lord Kitchener to act as minister of war. But the deadlock in the West and the disasters in the East showed that everything had not yet been done to bring about victory. On two occasions it was found desirable to reconstitute the ministry. The first reconstruction was in 1915 when the opposition leaders took office under Asquith. Among them were A. J. Balfour

**The
Asquith
National
Ministry**

and Bonar Law, who had since 1911 become leader of the Conservatives in succession to Balfour. The most important new steps were, however, the establishment of a Ministry of Munitions under Lloyd George, and the adoption of compulsory service for the army. Thus sufficient shells and arms were provided for the vast British armies and an adequate supply of soldiers to man them.

17. Kitchener perished at sea when the ship on which he was travelling to Russia was blown up by a stray mine. Thereupon Lloyd George became minister of war. His rare gifts of imagination and insight soon marked him out as the best leader of the nation at war. In 1916 Asquith resigned office, and Lloyd George became Prime Minister of a national Coalition, intent on winning the war. Great changes were made in the direction of army and navy. New departments were set up to supply war needs, control the food supply, and build new ships to replace those blown up by German submarines. The State took over the control of everything. Though huge mistakes were made, the result was to throw the whole energies of the nation into the prosecution of the war. Thus the greatest crisis of modern history was met by exertions worthy of the time.

18. It was with renewed hope that the allies went into the campaign of 1917. Yet so far as the West was concerned these hopes were doomed to disappointment. In the spring and summer a considerable advance was made both by the British armies, now commanded by General Douglas Haig, and by their French allies. But the losses they suffered were enormous, and in the autumn the Germans, reinforced by their troops from the East, once more began to move forward and reconquer the ground they had lost. The Italian line

**The Lloyd
George
Coalition
Ministry**

**The Cam-
paigns of
1917**

was broken by the Austrians, who thereupon invaded and conquered the north-eastern provinces of Italy. It was only in the East that the main tide of battle turned. In Mesopotamia the fall of Kut was avenged by General Maude, who marched up the Tigris and captured *Bagdad*. The British army in Egypt invaded Palestine, and, under General Allenby, soon made good progress. But the most decisive event in favour of the allies in 1917 was the declaration of war by the United States. The adhesion of America more than outbalanced the falling away of Russia.

19. At the beginning of 1918 the state of things in the West looked almost as bad as in the autumn of 1914. The game of the Germans was now once more to force the pace. Accordingly they tried to smash up the French and British armies before America could send a strong force to help them. They nearly succeeded in carrying out their purpose. Between March and June they gained a wonderful series of victories which threatened to separate the French from the British and to drive the British back on to the Channel ports. They drove a deep wedge into the British army in Flanders, and marched down the Somme, threatening Amiens. At the same time they advanced against the French down the Oise and southwards over the Marne, getting dangerously near to Paris, both on the north and on the east.

**The last
German
successes**

20. The real trouble with the allies was that, though their soldiers had shown extreme bravery, each army had fought for its own hand, and there had been no single mind to direct and plan the whole campaign. Lloyd George now insisted that a single general-in-chief should be appointed with power to command the soldiers of the many nations fighting in France. He was severely opposed, but persevered until he had got his way.

**The Unity
of command**

Marshal Foch was then chosen as supreme commander, General Haig loyally falling in with the new position. The effects of the change soon made themselves felt. They came more quickly since the allies, though defeated, had never lost confidence or courage, and now, despite submarines, hundreds of thousands of fresh American soldiers were convoyed over the ocean by the British fleet, and were taking up their posts beside the war-worn veterans of France and Britain.

21. Foch bided his time, and did not strike until all his plans were ready. But in the middle of July the French fell upon the advancing Germans, massed some fifty miles east of Paris, and drove them back, after fierce fighting in the *second battle of the Marne*. This battle was as fatal to the last advance of the Germans as was the first battle of the Marne to their original effort to snatch a hasty triumph. Thereupon the British renewed their offensive with success equally great. By the end of September the line of 1917 was more than restored.

22. Then came about a wonderful collapse of the enemy, both in the East and in the West. In the East it was the less unexpected, since 1917 had already seen the beginnings of the break-up of the Turkish army. But in 1918 the British army in Mesopotamia found it easy to advance as far as it liked. In Palestine Allenby outmanœuvred the Turks by great encircling movements of his strong force of cavalry, occupied Jerusalem and Damascus, and finally by the conquest of Aleppo cut off the Turks in Mesopotamia from their base. More surprising still was the awakening of the Macedonian army from its long inactivity, and the rapid collapse of the enemy before it. On 29 September Bulgaria, seeing that the game was up, made an unconditional surrender. A month later, Turkey also laid down her arms on the

**The Turn of
the Tide**

**Victory in
the East**

conditions imposed by the allies. Thus the Eastern designs of the Central Powers were entirely frustrated.

23. The surrender of Bulgaria and Turkey made Austria unable to hold her own any longer in the Balkan lands. Serbia, her victim, was now swiftly reconquered by the Macedonian force of the allies. Then the Italians advanced against the Austrian invaders of Italy, and soon drove them with enormous losses back over their own frontiers. Austria, face to face with invasion, was also brought to her knees by a revolt of her own Slavonic subjects. The Austro-Hungarian Empire where minorities of Germans and Hungarians had long ruled harshly over Slav majorities, collapsed under the strain. On 3 November she signed an armistice which left her helpless in the hands of the allies. Thereupon revolution broke out within her empire, and each of the many nations, which had been uneasily united under her sway, sought to build up an independent state of its own.

**The Collapse
of Austria**

24. The most vital result of the surrender of Bulgaria, Turkey, and Austria was to leave Germany alone to fight against the world in arms. Already her soldiers had fallen back to the so-called *Hindenburg line*, built by their most famous leader General Hindenburg and believed to be so strong as to defy capture. But the allies broke through the boasted defences of the Germans, despite the stubborn courage with which they still continued to fight. So hard pressed were the Germans that by October they begged President Wilson to bring about peace, but he sternly answered that they must first yield up their conquest and give proof that their word could be trusted before negotiations could begin. Meanwhile the allies moved on from success to success. By the end of October, more than half Flanders was reconquered and France nearly

**The Sub-
mission of
Germany**

cleared of her invaders. Then the Germans changed their government and besought the allies to grant them an armistice. At last they accepted the terms imposed upon them by Foch, and on 11 November, 1918, the last fighting came to an end. They allowed the allies to take possession of all their conquests, and of all Germany west of the Rhine; they surrendered their warships, their submarines, their guns, and their prisoners. A revolution in Germany, resulting in the flight of the emperor, completed the break-up of the German menace. Thus an armistice, the end of actual fighting, was happily brought about. The next step was to turn the armistice into a final peace.

25. A conference of the allies met at Paris to consider the terms on which peace should be made.

The Peace of Versailles Among the statesmen there assembled were Lloyd George, President Wilson and the

French Prime Minister, Clemenceau. A vast task lay before them and many months passed before any definite results were arrived at. But in June, 1919, exactly five years after the murder of the Austrian heir had started the war, Germany unwillingly accepted at Versailles the conditions imposed upon her. They were fatal to the hopes with which the Germans had entered the War. Germany was to be content with a small army and navy; she was to pay as much as she could in compensation to the allies whom she had so deeply wronged. She was to restore to the French Alsace and Lorraine, which she had taken from France in 1871; she was to surrender all her colonies; she was to allow the Danes, Poles and her other non-German subjects to decide by voting whether they would or would not remain attached to Germany; she was even to give up the German city of Danzig to allow revived Poland to have a port of its own. The terms of peace with Austria were settled a few months later. They put in the place of the unwieldy Austrian Empire seve-

ral national states, and gave to Italy not only most of Italian Austria, but some German-speaking lands as well. When they came to settle the Turkish peace the victorious allies began to quarrel among themselves, and the Turks thus got better terms than had at first seemed likely. They lost territory to Greece and gave up Palestine and Iraq to be ruled by Britain, and Syria to be ruled by France. These three territories are ruled under 'Mandate' or trusteeship from the League of Nations of which mention is made in the next paragraph. Turkey herself consists mainly of Asia Minor, though she retains Constantinople, but the capital has been moved to Angora.

26. Included in the Peace Treaties was a plan to establish a *League of Nations*, which it was hoped would make future wars impossible, or at least secure that they did not break out almost by accident as they had done in the past.

**The League
of Nations**

All the great powers with the exception of Russia, where the Bolshevik revolution had broken out and of the United States whose people were always jealous of foreign alliances, joined the League, and pledged themselves most solemnly not to go to war with each other until every step had been tried to settle the dispute in a peaceable way. Britain herself, the Dominions and India, as well as practically all the states of the world are now members of the League, and send delegations to the Assembly which meets each September at Geneva. The Council consists of representatives of the biggest powers and a few others elected in turn, and meets more often, and tries to prevent disputes, and to arrange for closer co-operation between the nations of the world in many ways. Since it was started the League had called a number of important international conferences, and has done much to smooth over international difficulties. It has had some very difficult problems to handle and has not

always been entirely successful, but the regular meeting of statesmen of different nations has helped them to understand something of each other's difficulties. The League is an immense experiment. If it succeeds it will mark a new era in human society, and give the world something worth having in exchange for the losses, the misery and horrors of the Great War. If it fails none can say what disasters the future holds in store.

27. England herself, despite the great exertions she made to win the war did not neglect reforms. A Reform Act in 1918 gave the vote to practically all adult males, and to women over thirty; the districts returning members were rearranged on a nearer approach to equality. Women have been since admitted to the vote at twenty-one which is the qualifying age for men also. Much too has been done to extend and improve education, since it has always been realised that without education the vote is merely a menace. Much attention has also been given to providing for the poorer citizens, by schemes of social insurance for unemployment, for sickness and ill-health, and by pensions for widows and orphans. It will be seen how much attention has been paid to social questions, and there was need of this, for since the war Britain has been suffering from a long continued and very severe depression of trade, which has forced her to support a continuous body of unemployed running into millions. The world as a whole has been suffering from similar disturbances since the war. The schemes for exacting payment of reparations from defeated Germany, together with the great war debts owed by various nations of France or Britain, and ultimately to the great creditor nation the United States of America, have so paralysed the old trade activities that nation after nation has been on the verge of bankruptcy. International trade has shrunk, and in certain cases there have even been signs of a

**The After-
math of the
War**

return to barter. From such a situation the best brains of the world are seeking an escape.

28. War conditions made acute the longstanding question of the state of Ireland. The Irish Nationalist party led by John Redmond, had agreed to postpone its political demands because of the Great War, and as we have seen

**The Irish
settlement**

the Home Rule Act was suspended until the war was over. In the early part of the war Ireland sent a fair supply of recruits to the British armies, but as the war dragged on, the extremist or Sinn Fein party gained ground, and the constitutional or Nationalist party fell into discredit. The Sinn Feiners were avowedly discontented with the limited powers which were to be given to the Irish parliament by the Home Rule Act, and they objected to the policy of postponement. They gradually drifted towards violence, and at Easter 1916, with German help, engineered a rebellion in Dublin. This was suppressed after some street fighting, but the discontent was only driven underground. Matters were brought to a head by an Act of 1918 which attempted to extend conscription to Ireland. The Act met with a storm of opposition and could never be enforced. At the general election in that year the Sinn Feiners, who had declared for the establishment of an independent republic, gained 73 seats. They thus held all the seats in southern Ireland except two, and some seats in the north as well. The minority of Unionists in the north were equally determined that they would not accept any form of Home Rule, much less such a republic as the Sinn Feiners desired.

When the Sinn Fein members solemnly met in Dublin and 'declared the republic', matters drifted steadily towards civil war, between the extremists and the upholders of British rule. At last in 1921 commonsense re-asserted itself and an agreement was negotiated between Sinn Fein and the British Government, by

which Ireland was to be given full Dominion status such as Canada possessed. The North was allowed to withdraw from this arrangement, and still sends members to the British Parliament. Thus was set up the Irish Free State, which consists of Southern Ireland, and rules itself by its parliament at Dublin as a British Dominion.

29. India had for a long time been agitating for Home rule. At the end of the Great War, the British Government undertook to make India, in gradual stages a self-governing unit of the British Empire. Accordingly, the Montagu-Chelmsford report was issued and a new system of government was introduced in 1920. In 1927, a Royal Commission was appointed, with Sir John Simon as its Chairman, to consider further changes, and subsequently three Round Table Conferences were held in London, at which the Indian peoples were represented. In 1933 a scheme of Constitutional Reform for India was put forward, which was later embodied in a bill, presented to both Houses of Parliament, and became law in 1935. The new system of government was introduced in 1937.

30. One of the greatest changes that has taken place in recent years has been in the organisation and spirit of the British Empire. Indeed the old name of Empire is now reserved for the newer settlements and territories such as those in Africa, and in Malaya, as well as such old colonies as the West Indies which have not yet achieved full self-government. We speak instead of the Commonwealth of Nations when we think of that brotherhood of free nations, the Dominions. Six nations are recognised as dominions today, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, South Africa, the Irish Free State, and Newfoundland. The phrase Dominion status came gradually into use to indicate that complex of power and responsibilities enjoyed by the govern-

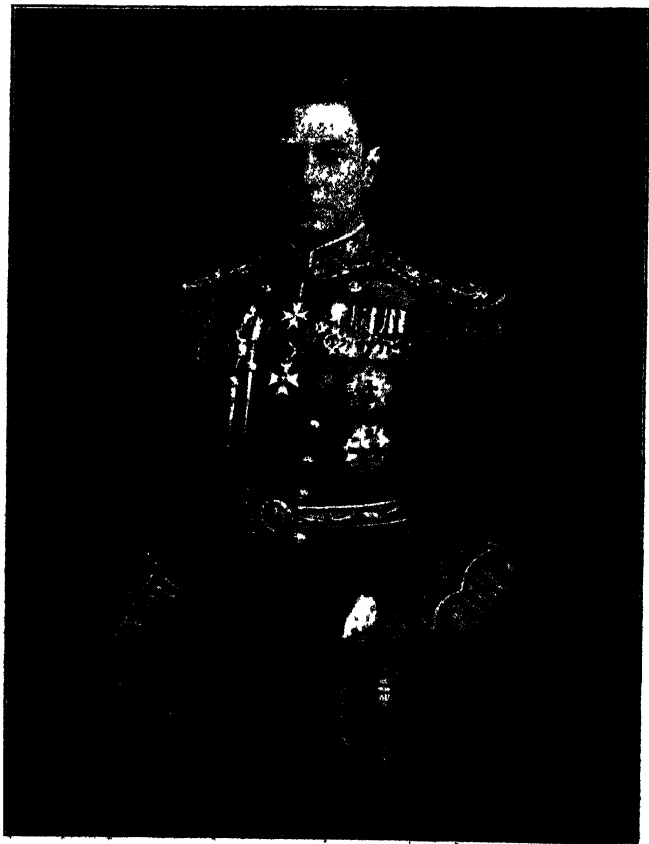
ments of the British Dominions, but it is a phrase which cannot at any time be sharply and clearly defined. It rests on a mass of customs which have grown up in the actual working of the constitution of the Empire and as these customs grow and develop, so dominion status changes and expands. The Dominions are recognised as nations by also becoming members of the League of Nations. They meet every four years in London at the Imperial Conference to discuss matters of common concern. In 1926 a famous report drawn up by a committee of the conference under Lord Balfour was adopted. It stated that the Dominions 'are autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate to one another in any respect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. Every self-governing member of the Empire is now master of its own destiny. In fact if not always in form it is subject to no compulsion whatever'. Four years later in 1931 was passed the Statute of Westminster which laid it down that the parliament at London was no longer sovereign as far as the Dominions were concerned. To this stage then we have come in that long evolution of history from those early days when the free English folk settled in the island from their homes in Germany. We have a group of free nations, freely governing themselves and freely co-operating in all matters of common interest. It is a system which is of great value to humanity and to the peace of the world, and statesmen in England and in the Dominions are studying to see how best they can make certain that it shall endure.

In 1935 His Majesty George V. completed the 25th year of his reign and the Silver Jubilee was celebrated with great enthusiasm in London and elsewhere throughout the British Empire. But he was not

George V.

destined to live long after this. On January 20, 1936 he passed away after an eventful reign of 25 years. His son, the Prince of Wales, succeeded him as King Edward VIII.

King Edward VIII., when he was Prince of Wales, had paid visits to nearly every part of the Empire.

**GEORGE VI.***[Photo : Vandyk]*

He took a keen interest in his people and when he renounced the throne on the 10th of December 1936, after a very short reign of less than eleven months, the grief of the people was very great. He was succeeded by his brother the *Duke of York* as *King George VI.* and was crowned at Westminster Abbey on May 12, 1937.

King George VI., as Duke of York, had travelled in Kenya, Uganda and the Sudan in Africa, New Zealand and Australia where he opened the new Parliament buildings at Canberra. He also took a great interest in the Industrial Welfare Society of which he was the first President. He has had a long training in the public affairs of the country and is therefore well fitted to take up the responsibilities of a sovereign.

QUESTIONS

1. Tell what you know of the Parliament and the National Insurance Acts.
2. Where is Ulster? Why were the people of Ulster against granting Home Rule for Ireland?
3. Who were the members of the Triple and Dual Alliances? What was the attitude of the English towards these?
4. What were the ambitious designs of Germany? How did she hope to achieve them?
5. What was the immediate cause that led to the Great War of 1914? Why did England take part in it?
6. What was the German plan of campaign? How did her plan succeed against France and Russia?
7. Tell what you know of the Revolution in Russia in 1917. Who were the Bolsheviks?
8. Who was Woodrow Wilson? Why did he declare himself against Germany?
9. Tell how Germany and her allies were crushed finally in the East as well as in the West.
10. Point out the chief provisions of the treaty of Versailles. Tell how the treaty affected Germany.

11. What are the territories under the 'Mandate'? With what objects has the League of Nations been started?

12. What effects had the Great War on the trade and prosperity of the people?

13. What reforms have been effected in England after the War in respect of Franchise, Education, Unemployment and other social problems?

14. Who are the Sinn Feiners? Under what circumstances was the Irish Free State established?

15. What is meant by the British Commonwealth? What portions of the British Empire are recognised as Dominions? What powers do they enjoy in their domestic and external affairs? How has the Statute of Westminster enhanced the status of the Dominions?

INDEX

Abbey, Westminster, 40, 42, 45, etc.
 Abbeys, destruction of, 196; suppression of, 194-196
 Abbots, the, 48, 98
 Abolition of the slave trade, 352-354
 Act for Catholic Emancipation, 363
 ————Education, 384
 ————Habeas Corpus, 282
 ————Irish Land, 384
 ————against Lollards, 149
 ————Municipal Corporation Reform, 369
 ————Mutiny, 291
 ————Navigation, 266
 ————Reform. *See* Bill.
 ————of Security, 304
 ————Septennial, 313
 ————of Settlement, 291, 305
 ————of Supremacy, 212
 ————Suspensory (H o m e Rule), 411
 ————Test, 280, 287; Repeal of, 363
 ————Toleration, 291
 ————of Union (Scotland) 305, (Ireland) 350
 Addison, Joseph, 308
 Age of Reason, 324
 Agincourt, battle of, 153
 Agricultural Revolution, 344
 Albert of Coburg, Prince Consort of Victoria, 372
 Aleppo, 422
 Alexander III., King of the Scots, 108
 Alfred the Great, King of the West Saxons, 24-30, 31, 34, 46, 60
 Allenby, General, 422
 Amending Bill (Home Rule), 411

America, 176, 220, 221, 223-239, 241, 244, 245, 314, 326, 328, 334, 340, 352, 369;
 Colonies in, 238, 239;
 Slave Trade to, 352;
 War with, 334-340
 Amiens, Treaty of, 346, 347
 Angles, the, 12, 13, 14
 Anglia, East, 14, 27, 51
 Anglo-Saxons, 12, 81
 Anjou, Geoffrey, Count of, 61, 64, 65
 ————Henry II. of, 64-72
 ————lost by John, 95
 Anne, Queen, 296, 299-310
 ————Boleyn, 190, 193, 197, 210
 Anselm, St., Archbishop of Canterbury, 59-61, 70, 118
 Anti-Corn Law League, 375
 Aquitaine, 65, 73, 110, 133
 ————Eleanor of, 65, 80, 128
 Aragon, Catherine of, 181, 150, 193, 204, 205, 214
 Arc, Joan of, 158-160
 Architecture, Anglo-Saxon, 117;
 Norman, 40, 58, 96, 117;
 Gothic, 40, 96, 117; Elizabethan or Jacobean, 230
 Armada, the Spanish, 224-226
 Arms, Assize of, 69
 Army, Alfred the Great's, 28; the old English, 47; in twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 120; Charles I.'s, 252, 253; the, and Richard Cromwell, 270; Elizabeth's, 224, 225; the New Model, 259; the Puritan, 273; reform of the, 384
 Army, the Scots, 257
 Arrest of the five members, 255
 Articles, the thirty-nine, 212

- Asquith, H. H., 401, 405, 408,
420
- Assize of Arms (1181), 69; Cla-
rendon, 68; the Grand, 68;
the Bloody, 286
- Athelney, 25, 46
- Athelstan, 31
- Attainder, Bill of, 254
—of Strafford and
Laud, 254
- Augustine, St., 18
- Babington, Anthony, 218
—Conspiracy, 218
- Bacon, Sir Francis, 231, 243, 244
- Bagdad, 421
- Balance of Power, the, 189, 378
- Balfour, Arthur J., 401, 404, 420
- Balliol, Edward, son of John
Balliol, 127
—John, King of Scots, 127
- Barebone's Parliament, 267
- Barons, The, 55, 59, 84, 98, 100,
121, 125, 165
—and John, 84
—and Henry III., 100, 101
—Council of, 100
—Edward I., 105
—Edward II., 120-124
- Battles—
- Agincourt, 152-153, 227; Bala-
clava, 379; Bannockburn,
122-123, 131; Barnet, 167;
Blenheim, 301, Bosworth,
171; Boyne, The, 294;
Crecy, 130, 131, 132, 133,
134, 153, 227; Cul-
loden Moor, 322; Dettin-
gen, 319; Dunbar, 265;
Edgehill, 257; Evesham, 101,
102; Falkirk, 322; Flodden
Field, 189; Fontenoy, 319;
Hastings, 42; Inkerman,
379; Killiecrankie, 295; La
Hougue, 296; Lewes, 100;
Lincoln, 96; Malplaquet,
301; Marne, The, 414;
Marstonmoor, 257; Minden,
329; Naseby, 261; Neville's
Cross, 132; Newbury, 257;
Nile, The, 346; Oudernarde,
301, Patay, 159; Phillip-
haugh, 259; Pinkie, 201;
Plassey, 329; Poitiers, 133;
Prestonpans, 320; Ramillies,
301; St. Albans, 162; St.
Vincent, 346; Sedgemoor,
286; Sheriffmuir, 313;
Shrewsbury, 150; Sluys,
129, 130; Spurs, The, 188;
Stamford Bridge, 41; Tala-
vera, 354; Tewkesbury, 168;
Towton, 164; Trafalgar,
351, 352; Vittoria, 356;
Wakefield, 162; Waterloo,
356; Worcester, 265
- Beaconsfield, Benjamin Disraeli,
Earl of, 386, 387, 388
- Becket, Thomas, Archbishop of
Canterbury, 69-71
- Benevolences, 168, 170, 182
- Berlin, Conference of, 386
- Bible, The Translation of, 197
- Bill, Exclusion, 282
—Reform, The Great, 366-
369
—the 2nd, 381-382
—the 3rd, 390
—the 4th, 410
—of Rights, 290
—Root and Branch, 255
- Bishops, Trial of the Seven,
288
- Black Death, 134
- Blake, Admiral, 266, 269
- Bloemfontein, 403
- Boers, the, 394, 396
- Boer War, the, 394, 396, 403
- Boleyn, Anne, second wife of
Henry VIII., 185, 190, 193,
210
- Bolingbroke, Henry St. John,
Lord, 303
- Bolsheviks, 415
- Bonaparte, Napoleon, 346, 347
- Boston, Massachusetts, 336
- Bright, John, 375, 376
- Bristol, 306

- Bruce, David, King of Scots,
 127, 128, 132
 Bruce, Robert, King of Scots.
 112, 122, 126, 127
 Brussels, 356
 Bubble, South Sea, 314
 Buckingham, duke of, George
 Villiers, 242, 243, 247, 250
 Burgoyne, General, 337
 Burke, Edmund, 348
 Byng, Admiral, 328

 Cabal, the, 278, 279
 Cabinet Government, 293, 312,
 317
 Cade, Jack, 161
 Cadiz, 224
 Cæsar, Caius Julius, 6-7
 Calais, 132, 133, 134, 152, 153,
 160, 189, 209, 226
 —Treaty of, 133, 134
 Calvin, John, 212
 Campbell-Bannerman, Sir H.,
 401, 405
 Campeggio, Cardinal, 191
 Canning, George, 361, 362
 Canterbury, Archbishop of. *See*
 Augustine, Dunstan, Lan-
 franc, Anselm, Becket,
 Langton, Morton, Cranmer,
 Laud, Sancroft
 Canterbury Tales, 134
 Cape of Good Hope, The, 223,
 388, 394
 Carlisle, 10, 113
 Carolina, 277
 Carta, Magna, 84, 85, 114
 Castle, Stirling, 122
 —The Tower of London,
 51, 164, 181, 194, 244
 Cathedral, St. Paul's, 278
 Catholic Emancipation, 350,
 362, 363
 Cave Men, 1, 2
 Cavendish, Frederick (Lord),
 390
 Caxton, William, 175
 Celtic Civilization, 4
 Celts, 4, 5

 Chamberlain, Joseph, 391, 404,
 405, 407
 Chancellor More, 193, 194
 Charles I., 247-263
 —II., 273-284
 —Edward, the Young
 Pretender, 320, 322
 Chartists, Chartism, 373, 374
 Chatham, William Pitt the El-
 der, 324, 325, 333, 336, 338
 Chaucer, Geoffrey, 134
 Chippenham, the Treaty of, 25
 Christianity, beginnings of, 18,
 19
 —-in Britain, 18-20
 Church, William I. and the, 57,
 58; John and the, 81-83;
 Edward I. and the, 114;
 Henry IV. and the, 149;
 the English, in the fifteenth
 century, 171; the, in Henry
 VIII.'s time, 192, 197; the,
 and Mary Tudor, 204-208;
 the, and Elizabeth, 212,
 213; the, and James I., 241;
 the, and Charles I., 252,
 253; Cromwell's settlement
 of, 268, 269; Restoration
 settlement of, 275, 276, the
 Revolution and the, 290,
 291
 Civil war, the Great, 256-261
 Clarendon, Assize of, 66, 68
 —Constitutions of, 70
 Clive, Robert, 329, 380
 Cnut, king, 34, 35
 Coalition ministry, 377-380,
 420-424
 Cobden, Richard, 376
 Coffee-houses, 306
 Colonies, 220-224, 238, 239, 276,
 277, 304, 314, 334, 336, 337,
 338, 369, 392, 393, 428
 Columbus, Christopher, 176
 Commons, House of, the first,
 100, 101, 114
 Commonwealth, the, 265-271
 Company, the South Sea, 314
 Conference of Berlin, 386, 387

Confirmation of the Charters, 114
 Congress of Vienna, 357
 Conservatives, 374, 385, 405-407, 420
 Constantinople, 386, 413
 Corn laws, 374, 375
 ————repeal of the, 376, 377
 Courts, County, 48
 ————of High Commission, 252
 ————the King's, 110
 ————of Star Chamber, 183, 252
 Covenant, the Scottish national, 252, 253
 ————the Solemn League and, 257
 Cranmer, 193, 197, 201, 208
 Crimea, 379
 Crimean War, 378-380
 Cromwell, Oliver, 259, 262, 264-270
 ————Richard, 270
 ————Thomas, 195, 197, 198
 Crusade, the First (1095), 75, the Second, 76, the Third, 76, 77
 Cullodenmoor, 322

 Danby, 279-281
 Danegeld, 34
 Danelaw, 27
 Danes, the, 21, 23-38
 Dardanelles, 417
 Darnley, Henry, Lord, 215
 Debt, the National, 296
 Declaration of Independence, the American, 337
 ————of Indulgence of 1688, 287
 ————of Rights, 288, 290
 Defender of the Faith, Henry VIII. made, 192
 Desmond, the earls of, 227
 Despensers, the, 124

Despotism, the Norman, 103; the Tudor, 183, 184; Charles I.'s, 251-253
 Disendowment and disestablishment of the Irish Church, 383
 Dispensing power, 287
 Dissenters, the Protestant, 213, 275, 325, 363
 Domesday Book, 58, 59
 Dominicans, the, 118
 Dominion of Canada, 392, 393
 Dover, Treaty of, 278
 Drake, Sir Francis, 221-223
 Dress in Stewart period, 307
 Drogheda, Capture of, 265
 Druids, the, 5
 Dryden, John, 308
 Dudley, John, Earl of Warwick, 203
 Dundee, Viscount, John Graham of Claverhouse, 295
 Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, 32-34
 Dutch, the, 219, 269, 276, 277, 279, 280, 296, 394
 Dyke, Offa's, 22

 Earldoms, the Great, 36
 East India Company, 239, 380
 Edgar, the Peaceful king, 32, 33
 Edmund Ironside, 34, 35
 Education Act, Elementary, of 1870, 384
 Edward the Elder, King, 31
 ————Martyr, 33
 Edward I., 103-115
 ————II., 121-125
 ————III., 126-137
 ————IV., 165-168
 ————V., 168-169
 ————VI., 201-204
 ————VII., 401-407
 ————VIII., 430
 Edward, Seymour, 201
 Edwin, king of Northumbria, 18, 21
 Edwy, king, 32

Egbert, king of the West Saxons, 23

Elba, 356

Eliot, Sir John, 250, 251

Elizabeth, queen, 210-235

———Electress Palatine, daughter of James I., 245

Essex, the earl of, Elizabeth's favourite, 229

———the Parliamentary General, son of the above, 257

Ethelbert, king of Kent, 17, 18

Ethelred, the Unready, 34

Exclusion bill, the, 282

Excommunication of John, 83

Factory System, 343

Fairfax, Sir Thomas, 259

Falkland, Lord, 255

Fawkes, Guy, 241

Fenians, the, 383

Feudalism, 55, 138, 139

Feudal System, the, 54

Field of Cloth of Gold, the, 189

Fire, the Great, of London, 278

Five members, arrest of the, 255, 256

Flanders, 128, 421

Florence Nightingale, 379

Foch, Marshal, 422, 424

Foreigners, power of, in England, 58

Forest, the New, 59

———Laws, 85

Fox, Charles James, 340, 348, 352

France, Henry II.'s power in, 65

———Edward III. and war with, 127-134

———Hundred Years' War with, 127-134, 152-160

———and Perkin Warbeck, 181

———and Scotland, 182

———and Mary Queen of Scots, 214

———and Mary Tudor, 209

France, Elizabeth ends war with, 213, 214

France, Charles I. at war with, 249

———and Charles II., 276, 278, 279

———and Cromwell, 269

———and England under Charles II., 276-279

———James II. flees to, 288

———and William III., 296

———and Queen Anne, 299-304

———Walpole friendly with, 319

———and Young Pretender, 320

———and Australian succession, 319

———in India, power of, 326, 328

———in North America, power of, 326, 328

———Revolution in, 344, 345

———at war with England, 346, 348

———allied with England during the Crimean war, 378, 379

———at war with Germany, 411-424

———allied with England in interfering in Egypt, 388, 389, 390

France, Dual alliance with Russia, 412

Franco-German war, the, 384, 385

Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, 319, 328, 333

Free Trade, 375, 376, 377

Fyrd, the, 47

'Garter, Order of the, 136

Gauls, the, 6, 7

Gaunt, John of, 137, 138, 147

Gaveston, Piers, 121

Geneva, 212

Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, father of Henry II., 61, 64

———son of Henry II. and duke of Brittany, 65, 79

George I., Elector of Hanover,
 311-315
 —II., 316-330
 —III., 331-359
 —IV., 360-365
 —V., 408-431
 —VI., 431
 —Duke of Clarence, 167,
 179
 —D. Lloyd, 405, 406, 420-
 425
 Georgia, 326
 Germany, Luther and, 192
 Germany and England, 311,
 411-424
 Germany at war with France,
 384-385
 —the war with, 1914-18,
 411-424
 Gibraltar, 301, 304
 Gilds, merchant, and craft, 117
 Gladstone, William Ewart, 377,
 382-385, 388-391
 Glencoe, the massacre of, 295
 Godwin, earl of the West
 Saxons, 38
 Grand Alliance, 301
 Grand Remonstrance, the, 255
 Grattan, Henry, 349
 Gregory I., the Pope, 17
 Grey, Lady Jane, 204
 Gunpowder plot, 241
 Guthrum, the leader of the
 Danes, 28

 Haig, Marshal Sir Douglas, 422
 Hampden, John, 251, 255, 257
 Hanover, 311
 Hardy, Thomas, 398
 Harfleur, taken by Henry V.,
 152
 Harley, Robert, Earl of Oxford,
 303
 Harold, Earl of the West Sax-
 ons, king of England, 39,
 40, 41, 42
 Harold Hardrada, king of Nor-
 way, 41

Hartington, Lord, 391
 Hastings, Warren, 338, 342
 Hawkins, Sir John, 220, 221
 Heights of Abraham, 329
 Henry I., 60, 61
 —II., 64-72
 —III., 95-103
 —IV., 147-150
 —V., 151-155
 —VI., 156-164
 —VII., 178-184
 —VIII., 185-200
 Heptarchy, 13
 High Church party, 275
 —Commission Court, 252
 Highlanders, the, 312, 313, 322
 Hindenburg, General, 423
 Holland and Cromwell, 269
 —joins Grand Alliance,
 301
 —at war with England,
 346
 Home Rule for Ireland, 390, 391
 Howard, Lord, 225
 Hubert de Burgh, 95, 96
 Hundred Years' War, 128-134,
 152-160
 Huxley, 398
 Hyde, Anne, first wife of James
 II., 285
 Hyde, Edward, 255, 277; Earl
 of Clarendon, 277, 278

 Iberians, 3
 Impeachment of Bacon, 244
 Impeachment of Strafford and
 Laud, 254
 —of Warren Hastings,
 342
 Independence, Declaration of
 American, 337
 Independents, 213
 India, 233, 328, 329, 342, 380
 Indian Mutiny, 380
 Indians, the Red, 326
 Indies, West, 238, 352
 Industrial Revolution, the, 343,
 344

Innocent III., the Pope, 81, 83
 Instrument of Government, the, 267
 Interdict, 82
 Invincible Armada, 224-226
 Ipswich, 187
 Ireland under the Normans, 71
 — Henry II., 72
 — Richard II., 143
 — Henry VIII., 199
 — Elizabeth, 227-229
 — Charles I., 252, 254
 — at war with Eng-
 land, 264, 265
 — and James II., 287
 — the Revolution in, 294
 Ireland and Younger Pitt, 349-350
 — Catholic Association in, 362
 — discontent in early nine-
 teenth century in, 362, 376, 383
 — famine in, 376
 — repeal agitation in, 390, 391
 — and Gladstone, 391
 — and Parnell, 385
 — and Home Rule, 386, 390
 Irish Land Act, 384
 Isthmus of Panama, 221
 — Suez, 388
 Italy, influence on England of, 174
 — in trade, 220
 — Spanish possessions in, 304
 Italy joins England and France in war against Germany, 417, 423, 425
 Jacobites, the, 297
 Jacobite revolts, 313, 320-322
 Jamaica, 269
 James I., 236-246
 — II., as Duke of York 277; as king, 285-289

James, the Old Pretender, son of James II., 297, 313
 — duke of Monmouth, 285, 286
 Jane Seymour, 198
 Japan at war with Russia, 404
 Jeffreys, Judge, 286
 Jellicoe, Admiral, 417
 Jeivis, Admiral, 346
 Jesuits, the, 217
 Jews, Cromwell and the, 269
 Joan of Arc, 158, 159
 John Lackland, King of Eng-land, 79-94
 — king of France, 133
 — of Gaunt, Duke of Lan-
 caster, 137, 138, 147
 — Duke of Bedford, 156
 — Duke of Burgundy, 154
 Joseph Bonaparte, king of Spain, 354
 Jubilee, the Diamond, 396
 — the Silver, 429
 Jury, origin of, 68
 Justices, Henry II.'s, 68
 Jutes, the, 12
 Jutland, 417
 Kenneth Mac-Alpine, king of Scots, 15
 Kent, kingdom of, 17; conver-
 sion of, 18
 — Etehlbert, king of, 17
 Khartum, taking of, 390
 Khedive of Egypt, 388, 389
 Kildare, earls of, 227
 Kings, Divine Right theory of, 247
 Kitchener, Lord, 403
 Knighthood, order of, 136
 Knights of the Shire, 101
 Knox, John, 214
 Labourers, Statute of, 134
 Labour party, 407
 Lackland, surname of John, 79-94
 Lancaster, House of, 147-164
 Land League, Irish, 386

Parliament, Elizabeth, 212
 — the Stewarts, 233,
 240
 — James I., 242
 — the Added, 242
 — and Charles I.,
 247, 248
 — the Short, 253
 — the Long, 253-256
 — and Charles at
 war, 256-261
 — Barebone's 267
 — Free, 270
 — and Religious toler-
 ation, 276, 290
 — Duration of, 313
 — British and Ame-
 rican taxation, 334
 — reform of, 366-368
 — and Ireland, 349,
 350
 — Grattan's, 349
 — Act, 368, 369, 381,
 382, 391, 410, 411
 Parliaments, origin of, 100, 101
 Parnell, Charles Stewart, 385
 Party Government, 293
 Paulinus, Archbishop of York, 18
 Peace of Ryswick, 296
 — Utrecht, 304
 Peasants' Revolt, 140-141
 Peel, Sir Robert, 371, 374, 376,
 377
 Pelham, Henry, 324
 — Thomas, 323
 Pelican, the (Ship), 223
 Pembroke, William Marshall,
 Earl of, 96
 Penda, king of the Mercians,
 19
 Peninsular War, 354, 356
 Penn, William, 277
 Pennsylvania, 277
 People's Charter, 374
 Persian Gulf, 417
 Perth, 313
 Petition of Right, 250
 Philip II. Augustus, King of
 France, 76

Phillip II., King of Spain, hus-
 band of Mary Tudor, 207,
 224
 — V., King of Spain, grand-
 son of Louis XIV., 300, 304
 Picts, the, or Caledonians, 9
 Pilgrimage of Grace, 196, 197
 Pilgrim Fathers, 239
 Pitt, the Younger, 340, 341, 342,
 348, 349, 350, 352, 361
 Plague, the Great, 278
 Plantagenet, House of, 64
 Plantation of Ulster, 238
 Plot, the Rye House, 283
 Poll-tax, 140
 Poor Law (New), 369
 Pope, the, and Becket, 70
 — John's quarrel with, 81,
 82
 — Henry III. and the, 97
 — Wycliffe — 142
 — the, and Henry VIII.,
 190, 191, 192, 193
 — opposes Elizabeth, 216
 Popish plot, 281
 Poundage, 250
 Presbyterians, 214, 251, 275
 Preston, 312
 Pretoria, 403
 Principality of Wales, 105
 Printing, invention of, 175
 Protection, 374
 Protectionists, 374
 Protestants, 203, 205, 209, 212,
 213
 Prussia, rise of, 319
 — at war with France,
 346
 — against Napoleon, 356
 Puritans, 213, 214, 241, 264,
 265, 267, 269, 276
 Pym, John, 253, 255, 257
 Pyrenees, the, 65, 133
 — Wellington crosses the,
 356
 Quakers, the, 277
 Quebec conquered, 329

Raleigh, Sir Walter, 223, 244,
245
Rebellion, the Great, 256
———Irish, of 1798, 349
———Jacobite, of 1715, 312,
313; of 1745, 320, 322
Recusants, Popish, 213
Red Indians, 326
Reform, Parliamentary, 342,
366, 368
Reform Bill I, 1832, 368-369;
II, 1867, 381-382; III, 1885,
391; IV, 1918, 426
Reformation, the, 192, 193
———continued under Ed-
ward VI., 202, 203
Reformation, arrested under
Mary, 205-208
———the, in Scotland,
214-215
Reign of Terror, 345
Reims, 158, 159
Renaissance, 174
Repeal of the Corn Laws, the,
376; Union, 372
Representation, Parliamentary,
366, 368
Republic, the French, 345
Restoration of Charles II., 270,
273
Revolution, the French, 345;
war against French, 346;
the Industrial, 343; of 1688,
the, 288; the, in Ireland,
294; Agricultural, 344
Richard I., the Lion Heart, 73-
78
———II., 138-146
———III., 169, 170, 171
———Duke of Gloucester, 169
———Duke of York, 162
Ridley, John, Bishop of London,
208
Rights, Bill of, 290
———Declaration of, 288
Roads, 363
———in Elizabeth's time, 230
———Roman, 10
Roberts, Lord, 396, 403

Rodney, Admiral, 340
Roman Catholics, in England,
215; and Test Act, 280;
and Cromwell, 269; perse-
cution of, 241; and James
II., 287; in Ireland, 294
Romans, 6-10
Rome, 6, 17, 81
———bishop of, 17
Root and Branch bill, 255
Rosebery, Lord, 391
Roses, Wars of the, 162-171
Rotten boroughs, 367, 368
Rouen, 38, 154, 159
Round Table Conferences in
London, 428
Roundheads, 256
Royal Commission, 428
Royalists, 272
Rump, the, 265, 267
Runnymede, 84
Rupert, Prince, 257
Russell, Lord, 283
———Lord John, 377
Russia, 361, 362, 378, 415;
Napoleon at war with, 350,
356; war between England
and, 379-380; at war with
the Turks, 386; Japan, 404;
her dual alliance with
France, 412; her protection
of Serbia and the Slavs,
413; Revolution in, 415;
Bolshevik rule, 415

Saint Brice's day, Massacre of,
34
———Helena, 357
Saladin, 76
Salic law, 129
Salisbury Plain, 3
———Marquis of, 391
Salonica, 417
Sancroft, Archbishop, 287
Saratoga, British surrender at,
337, 338
Saxons, the, 14, 21
———overlordship of, 23

Science, study of natural, 309
 —in Victorian age, 396,
 397
 Scone, 111
 Scotland and Henry I., 60
 —Henry II., 71
 —Edward I. 109-
 112
 —Edward II., 122,
 124
 —Perkin Warbeck,
 181
 —Henry VII., 182
 —Henry VIII., 189,
 199
 —Edward VI., 201
 —the Reformation,
 214, 215
 —James I., 236, 238
 —Charles I., 252,
 253, 257, 259, 261, 262
 Scotland, Presbyterianism in,
 214
 —at war with Eng-
 land, 111-113, 122, 123, 188
 —and Monk, 270
 —the Jacobites, 312,
 313, 320, 322
 —the Revolution in,
 295
 —Union between
 England and, 304, 305
 —discontent in, 305
 Scutage, 69
 Sebastopol, siege of, 379, 380
 Second Civil War, 262
 Security, Act of, 304-305
 Self-denying Ordinance, 259
 Seminary priests, 217
 Separatists, the, 213, 275. *See*
 also Dissenters
 Septennial Act, the, 313
 Serbia, 413, 414
 Shakespeare, William, 230
 Ship, the White, 61
 —Steam, 363
 —money, 251
 Shire-moot, 48
 Sidney, Algernon, 283

Sidney, Sir Philip, 219
 Simnel, Lambert, 180
 Sinn Fein, 427
 Slave trade, 221
 —abolition of, 352
 Somerset, duke of, Protector,
 201, 203
 Sophia, Electress of Hanover,
 292
 South Africa, 394, 403
 —Sea Bubble, 314
 —Sea Company, 314
 Spain and Queen Mary, 207
 —Elizabeth, 224-226
 —James I., 244
 —Charles I. at enmity,
 247, 248
 Spain, Louis XIV. at war with,
 269; and Marlborough, 301;
 Colonies of, 304; Philip V.,
 recognised as king of, 304;
 and Austrian Succession
 War, 319; Walpole at war
 with, 319; and the Ameri-
 can War, 338; at war with
 England, 354, 356; Nelson
 against, 351, 352; Wellin-
 gton in, 354, 356
 Spenser, Edmund, 230
 Stadholder, office of, 280
 Stamp Act, the, 334, 336
 Star Chamber, Court of, 183,
 252, 253
 Stephen, king of England, 61,
 62
 Stephenson, George, 363
 Stewart, House of, 236
 Stewarts and Parliament, 240
 Stone Age, the old, 1
 —the new, 4
 Stonehenge, 3
 Strafford, Sir Thomas Went-
 worth, earl of, 252, 253, 254
 Strathclyde, 14
 Sudan, 389, 390
 Suez Canal, 388
 Suspending power, 287
 Swegen, king of Denmark, 34
 Swift, Dean, 309

- Talents, ministry of all the, 352
 Tariff reform, 404, 405
 Taxation, American, 334, 336
 — in France, 345
 Tea, duty on, 336
 Telegraph, 396
 Telephone, 396
 Test Act, 280
 Thegns, 47
 Thomas Becket, 69-71
 'Thorough', system of, 252
 Toleration Act, 290, 291
 — religious, 269, 287, 288, 290, 362, 363
 'Ton' (town), 27
 Tonnage and Poundage, 250
 Torbay, 288
 Tories, the origin, 282; and James II., 288; in power, 303-305; and Jacobites, 311; and George I., 311, 312; against French Revolution, 348; and Parliamentary Reform, 361, 368, 369; and Peel, 374
 Tournai, 180
 Towns, English, 45, 89
 Towns, the, in the thirteenth century, 117
 — growth of, in the fifteenth century, 172
 — manufacturing, 343, 344
 Trade in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, 117
 — foreign, 117
 — of England, 220, 221, 223, 224
 — under Elizabeth, 223, 224
 — English, with India and the Far East, 239
 — rivalry between Dutch and English, 276, 277
 — since Revolution, 314
 — free, between Scotland and England, 306
 — in Stewart period, 306
 — with India, 328
 — in eighteenth century, 343, 344
 Trade under George IV., 363-364
 — free, 375
 — growth of, under Victoria, 397
 Trades-Union, 398
 Translation of the Bible into English, 197
 Transvaal, the, 394
 Travel in Elizabeth's time, 230
 Travel during the Restoration, 308
 — in Victorian age, 396, 397
 Treaty of Amiens, 346; of Calais, 133, 134; of Chippenham, 25; of Dover (secret), 278; of Mangalore, 338; of Northampton, 126; of Ryswick, 296; of Troyes, 154; of Utrecht, 304; of Wedmore, 25
 Trial by battle, 68
 — Jury, 68
 Ulster, 227, 238, 410, 411
 Union, the, between England and Scotland, 304, 305
 — Act of, with Ireland, 350
 Unionists, 392
 — Liberal, 392
 United Irishmen, 349
 United States of America, the, 340, 419
 Vassal, 55
 Versailles, Peace of (1919), 424
 Veto resolutions, 406, 407
 Victoria, Queen, 371-400
 Virginia, 223, 238
 Wales, 11, 105, 106, 199
 — Normans in, 71
 — Llewelyn, Prince of, 105-106
 — and Edward I., 105-107
 — Edward II., 126
 — Henry IV., 149, 150
 — Henry VII., 171

Wales and Henry VIII., 199
 —Parliamentary representation of, 199, 268
 Wallace, Sir William, 111, 112
 Walpole, Sir Robert, 314, 316, 317, 318, 324
 War, John's, with his barons, 84, 85; the barons', 100; the Hundred Years', 128-134, 151-160; of the Roses, 162-171; the Thirty Years', 245; the second Civil, 262; the Great Civil, 256-261; the Civil (Stephen), 62; of the Spanish Succession, 299-304; of Austrian Succession, 319; with Spain, 319; the Seven Years', 326-329; American, 336-340; between England and Napoleon, 350-356; the Crimean, 378-380; the Franco-German, 384-385; the Great (1914-1919), 411-424
 Warbeck, Perkin, 180, 181
 Warwick, the kingmaker, 166, 167
 —Richard, earl of, son of George, Duke of Clarence, 179; 180, 181
 Wellesley, Sir Arthur, Duke of Wellington, 354-356
 Wergild, 46
 Wesley, John, 325
 Wessex, kingdom of, 21, 23
 West Indies, 340, 369, 392
 Westminster Abbey, 40, 58

Whigs (origin), 282; and W: of Spanish succession, 303 and George I., 311, 312 George III.'s hatred of th 332, 333; the, defied ' younger Pitt, 341; against the French Revolution 348; unite with Tories, 27; the, and Parliamentary reform, 368-369; and Ireland 372; the, and Peel, 374-37; the, and Protection, 374 the, adopt name of Liberals 359
 Whitby, Synod of, 19
 White Rose of England, the 159
 William I., the Conqueror, 4, 50-59
 William II., Rufus, 59, 60
 William III., 288, 290-297
 William IV., 366-370
 —son of Henry I., 61
 Wilson, Woodrow, President of the United States, 418, 424
 Witenagemot, or Witan, the 48
 Wolfe, General, 329
 Wolsey, Thomas, 187-192
 Wren, Sir Christopher, 278
 Wyatt, Sir Thomas, 207
 Wycliffe, John, 141, 142

 York, 162, 164, 165, 257
 —James, duke of, 282, 2

